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THE RT. HON. ARTHUR HERBERT DYKE ACLAND, M. P.

Few men in the educational world occupy a position of so much influence as the Hon. Arthur H. Dyke Acland, whose portrait, taken from a recent photograph, we present on the opposite page. He comes of a distinguished family, and one that has had long and honorable connection with educational affairs. His father was an intimate friend of Mr. Gladstone at college, and during a long life, filled with public service, no interest engaged his attention more steadily than that of education. As a member of the Schools Inquiry Commission, 1864–67, he rendered important service. The son distinguished himself as a scholar, and became Honorary Fellow of Balliol College, Oxford. In the work of the National Association for the Promotion of Technical and Secondary Education, he was one of the foremost leaders. Under the auspices of this association appeared, 1892, *Studies in Secondary Education*, of which Mr. Acland was one of the two editors, and to which he contributed the chapter on the working of the Intermediate Education Act in Wales. He represented the Rotherham Division of Yorkshire in Parliament. When Mr. Gladstone's last cabinet was announced, it was found that Mr. Acland had not only been chosen Vice President of the Committee of Council

on Education, the office at the head of the educational system, but had been given a seat in the cabinet. His predecessor in the office in Lord Salisbury's administration had not been in the cabinet. In his present office Mr. Acland has devoted himself earnestly to the advance of secondary education. He is not only officially, but really at the head of the earnest movement in Great Britain for the improvement of secondary schools. He has in this work shown large capacity as a leader in educational progress. *C. H. T.*

OUTLOOK NOTES

The full effect of the Report of the Committee of Ten is only beginning to be felt. Perhaps its greatest service has been accomplished in directions that the originators of the movement did not have in mind, or at least did not specify. For one thing, the report has struck a fatal blow at sectionalism in education. For the first time we have not only the beginning but the substance of a national feeling in educational matters. The committee's report has proved in its effects of the highest patriotic importance. It has set school men all over the United States talking and thinking along the same lines. Surprisingly intelligent and valuable criticisms and discussions have come from all parts of the Union. It cannot be denied that the West has been most generous in its criticism and most prompt to accept the report as a basis for actual work. The first experiment in running the model programmes was made in Michigan, and large advances have been made in that state and in California toward establishing uniform entrance requirements and courses of study based upon the work of the Committee of Ten.

The work has been not alone that of patriots but even more markedly that of pioneers. We have distinctly begun to break up the wilderness. We could much more truly have characterized our secondary education, in the language of Mr. Goschen,

as a "chaos of areas, a chaos of rates, and a chaos of authorities" two years ago than to-day. Everywhere the inclination to take hold and clear up some tract of the great area of education is distinctly manifested. Whereas the tendency in our large educational meetings but yesterday was to a general discussion of rather vague topics, at present scarcely a meeting is held at which some committee is not appointed to report upon some definite problem or some previously appointed committee does not submit its report. These reports embody careful research and are apt to be accepted as final, for the time at least, on their special subjects. Most significant of such actions are the adoption of the new English requirements by united action of the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools and of the Association of College and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland, an action likely to be ratified by the schools of the Northwest, so that we shall gain a practically uniform standard in English; the appointment of the Committee of Fifteen of the National Department of Superintendence, the careful studies undertaken by the Michigan School Masters' Club and by the Committee at the University of California to determine upon the necessary modifications of the report of the Committee of Ten to make it a standard for college admission, both of which committees have done an enormous amount of work and collected an immense quantity of statistics; the appointment at the Baltimore meeting of the Middle States Association of the Committee on College Statistics; and the recent appointment at the Syracuse meeting of the Associated Principals of New York State of a committee to formulate a line of investigation to be pursued by that Association. These and many more that might be quoted, show the general feeling that the time for progressive action has arrived. Each of these reports ought to contribute something of permanent value to the sum total of educational fact. The impulse for all this pioneer work in clearing up the wilderness must be accorded to the Committee of Ten.

One of the truest words heard lately was the saying of Professor Remsen in his address at the Baltimore meeting that the colleges must look out or they will abolish themselves. At Syracuse, at the Principals' Meeting, it was stated that the difficulty with the report of the Committee of Ten was that it dealt with entrance requirements to universities, not with entrance requirements to colleges. The criticism was partly justified. It is time for somebody, and who should do it if not the secondary school master?—to call a halt on the apparently ever increasing tendency to raise the requirements for admission to that school which lies beyond the secondary school, whether its name be college, university or what not. For several years a movement has gone on without a protest which has for its only logical outcome the transmutation of secondary schools into colleges, colleges into universities, and universities into something new under the sun. The latest development of the movement has been an effort to promote grammar schools into high schools. No great popular movement has yet been started to raise the standard of the kindergarten, but such a movement is about due. The situation is wicked. The worst of it comes from the confusion of colleges and universities. There are many small colleges that talk a good deal about their mission and yet feel that they cannot respect themselves or be respected unless they put up their requirements to the same level as those of the universities. They thus lose a large part of the clientage they ought to have and fail almost totally to attract students who would naturally go to the large universities and are prepared to do so. A college education is one thing and a university education an entirely different thing; the two have different purposes, different aims, different methods, and should have different material. By lengthening out the course in the high schools and academies and so forcing up the standard of graduation from those schools further than is now the case, it may be that the high schools themselves will not suffer much, but fewer of their graduates will probably have time for the college course. The high school will become the finishing

school instead of the college; or else, until our professional schools raise their standard very much higher than it is at present, an increasing number will go direct from the high school to the professional school, skipping the college training.

Must Greek go? The cry is not a new one but it is rather persistent. President Schurman in his latest report devotes no little space to the discussion of the advisability of retaining Greek for the Arts course. At the Syracuse meeting Secretary Dewey boldly stated that in his judgment Greek would have to go, as so many things must come into the course and Greek could be apparently sacrificed better than any other study. It would be relegated to the college. Whether every one agreed with him or not is a question, but certainly no one combated his opinion and there were a good many who approved of it. The case is stated thus. Every year new studies are clamoring for admission to the secondary course. That course is crowded already, and a new subject of importance can only be included by excluding something already in. There is no other subject except Greek that takes up anything like the same amount of time, and the dropping of Greek would make room for a great many of the so-called new subjects. There are not a few people who believe very firmly that to drop Greek would be a decided advantage; there are others who are doubtful, and some who believe it would be a misfortune, but certainly none of the other subjects that require an equal expenditure of time could possibly be dropped. Granting these premises, the conclusion follows of itself. Just now the question is not really pressing. The burning question is that of proper adjustment of the relations between secondary schools and the schools just above them, centring about entrance requirements. This question will last some time yet. By the time it is out of the way several things will be clearer than they are now, among others, perhaps, that a short cut to omniscience is not the permanent fundamental of American education, and that we, too, can afford a little time for culture, and that a well-educated

man may succeed in the United States if he does begin his professional work as late as twenty-five years of age.

C. H. Thurber

THE EDUCATION OF A NATURALIST*

In the early days of science, when there was a good deal of unclaimed and uncultivated ground lying about, men sometimes dropped into science by the merest chance, some of them with but little preparaeion for the work, and many of them with less. Nowadays we have changed all that. And yet, as might be expected, there are still plenty of persons of intelligence who have no conception whatever of the duties of a scientific man; those who imagine that science as a profession can be picked up just as the duties of certain civil offices, or of clerical positions, may be readily learned and performed by any man of ordinary intelligence. Among the applications I have received for employment upon geological surveys under my direction, one man gave as a reason why he should be employed that he was a graduate of West Point; another was interested in geology and had read many books upon the subject, among which he cited some of the vaporings of Ignatius Donnelly; another used to be acquainted with Professor Winchell; and another was in poor health and thought field-work would be good for him; and still another was a consistent member of the Presbyterian church. At least half of the applicants have asked for employment because they understood ordinary land surveying; and one of them admitted that he had no other qualification than that he was "a good hand to camp out."

But this dropping into science of such men is no longer possible, and we now realize that those who are to do the scientific work of to-day and of the future must be thoroughly grounded in their college training, or its equivalent, and they must bring to their work the best and broadest scholarship and the most thorough special training.

*Commencement Address, Leland Stanford Junior University.

Of certain subjects that the naturalist must study it is not necessary to make mention ; for he who expects to be a botanist will, of course, study the biological branches that are essential to a thorough comprehension of botany. Those things, however, will always take care of themselves. The more difficult questions that arise in the minds of students relate chiefly to studies and other matters that lie without his special line of work.

The general training of a scientific man during the first three years of his college course is not, or should not be, essentially different from that of any man of culture.

In the balancing of the essentials and non-essentials, certain economic considerations have, almost without exception, to be faced at the very outset. Those of us who devote ourselves to pure science are constantly being wearied with that most tiresome of all Philistine questions about the practical value of what a man reads about, thinks about, or does ; how this and that study, this and that bit of training, are going to be of any use—the whole intellectual and cultural bearing of an education being completely ignored. As men who love science for its own sake, we get weary of such questions, and some of us feel driven, in order to emphasize our warnings, to avoid the useful altogether. Thus we occasionally have, on the one hand, men who have a horror of doing anything of practical value ; and on the other, men who have no patience with an investigation which does not promise some material reward. My opinion is is that there is little to choose between in these two types. One of them is just as far wrong as the other. Pure science has its place and its work ; so has applied science ; and each in its place is important and indispensable.

Whether one devotes himself to pure or applied science should be decided by one's taste and fitness as far as possible.

Of one thing, however, be assured : without pure science there can be no applied science ; and if anyone hopes to become eminent in either branch he must first lay hold on science itself.

The great advancement, the physical comforts and conveniences—what is generally comprehended under the word progress—of to-day, has not sprung full grown from the brain of applied science, as so many people seem to think. Such progress has been made possible only by the abstruse and apparently aimless and useless generalizations of pure science.

Speaking of men who devote themselves to such work, Mr. Holly says: "These men do not indeed create the laws of Nature, as they sometimes almost seem to, but they go up into the trembling mountain and the thick darkness and bring down the tables upon which they are written."

But whatever we study and whatever we do in science, there is to be done in it an immense amount of what engineers know as "dead work," that is, work that is quite indispensable, work that doesn't show to advantage so far as mere display is concerned, but without which the whole superstructure would be liable to go to pieces.

All scientific education and all scientific work is based, or should be based, on a single dogma—the only dogma that science recognizes—and that is, that truth is better than falsehood.

In its professional bearing the most essential part of the training of a man of science should be to the end that he observe well, and that in his deductions he properly subordinate his facts. His preliminary technical training should therefore be for the purpose of teaching him accuracy and detail; and the necessity of accuracy should be so deeply impressed upon his mind that accuracy will become a part of his nature.

As the whole professional training of the naturalist is for the purpose of enabling him to reach correct conclusions, he should be trained in the use of every method of investigation that will aid him, and among these methods I count as of great importance that of multiple working hypotheses. In my own experience I have found it of the greatest value, and I know of no better way of developing the reasoning powers, or of anticipating difficulties, or of reaching right conclusions, than by the

proper use of hypotheses. I lay some stress upon this point because I find that there are those who think that a man of science can have nothing to do with hypotheses, that he must confine himself to facts. Theory is just as important in science as fact, though performing very different functions.

There are certain things the young naturalist must learn, and it is well for him and for the world if he learn them just as early in his career as possible. To some of these I would call his attention.

In his methods he must always be willing to profit by the experiences of others. Methods and appliances of research are constantly being improved, but the improvements are made, not by disregarding the experience of others, but by making every possible use of it.

The newly fledged sometimes begin with the idea that the world was not discovered until they discovered it, and they think it perfectly safe to discard all human experience. This is one of the signs of a moral disease vulgarly known as the "big-head." When a scientific man gets it he never recovers in time to be of any service to mankind.

I would not have a young man doubt his own ability ; confidence in one's self, if it be well placed, is an important element in success, but it doesn't follow that when one trusts himself he should mistrust all the rest of the world. We hope and believe that the young man of to-day is wiser and better equipped than the young man of any past generation ; but the difference is, after all, not great, and it is quite safe to presume that one's ancestors did know a few things worth knowing.

The necessity of caution on the part of the young man in science in publishing conclusions that one feels to be open to criticism, or when he sees that important facts may have been overlooked, cannot be too strongly emphasized. The publication of facts is generally useful, but deductions can afford to wait until they are properly matured. A most valuable piece of advice once given me was to the effect that young people would better not begin pumping out of their intellectual reser-

voirs before something has been pumped into them. Life is too short, and progress is too slow, for us to cumber the march of science with verbose discussions which help toward strife and contention instead of toward truth and union. "The longer anyone studies a vast subject, the more cautious in inference does he become." To be sure "ignorance is no reason with a fool for holding his tongue"; but my advice is not intended for fools, who will be fools in spite of everybody and everything, but for those who, having sound sense, desire not to bring discredit upon themselves or upon the science to which they are devoted.

Science is not infrequently charged with vacillation. Appropos of this some one remarks: "Science says—but no matter what science says, for the next time she says anything she'll say just the opposite." We cannot deny the justness of the implied criticism; but that it is just must be attributed entirely to premature utterances. We have some sad examples of scientific men whose premature conclusions, drawn from too hasty or incomplete work, have kept half a dozen good men busy for years in correcting their mistakes and in putting the truth before the world. They are usually men of good enough intentions, but "we have a right to expect something more than good intentions of men." All people mean well; it is our business to do well.

Sensationalism is another thing that has done, and will probably continue to do, great injury to all branches of science. There are certain features about every science that impress the uninformed with their novelty, and there are certain persons who are always ready to make capital out of them. This gives rise to a sort of "O my!" class of men and to an "O my!" kind of science. Such people delight in the startling; none of the more radical theories of science, theories put forth by the right thinking with great caution, stagger them. In the scientific man's training, the less we have of the sensational, the better it will be for science and for the man.

Those who are at once workers in science and teachers of

science know how difficult it sometimes is to draw a sharp line between what we know and what we simply believe; but so far as possible this distinction should always be kept before the minds of students, and no effort should be spared to prevent that dazing of their minds which prevents them from weighing evidence and from distinguighing between simple truth, legitimate hypotheses, and simple figments of the imagination.

And now just a word about our responsibilities to our own intellects. Intellect is the tool with which the man of science has to do his work. If that tool is bent out of shape or dulled by improper use, it cannot perform its functions properly. It is highly essential therefore that he keep his intellect unimpaired. He should strive to keep his mind free from those tricks of logic, rhetoric, and sentiment, by which so many of us allow ourselves to be imposed upon. We are bound by every sentiment of honesty to go where our evidence leads us, whether it takes us to a pleasant place or not. Truth must be our companion whether she be an agreeable or a disagreeable one—a handsome or an ugly one. We can not honestly say to reason, "Thus far shalt thou go, but no farther"; we can't reasonably follow science to certain point and then abandon it for the divining rod or spiritualistic seances or claptrap appliances of any kind. The man who has no notion of accepting the results of his reasoning would just as well not reason at all; while he who undertakes to reason within certain limits insults his intelligence.

Above all, let me caution young naturalists against what I may call the "debating society" style of reasoning. The debating society is calculated to increase one's intellectual agility, no doubt, but as its object is the training of advocates, its influence on a man of science is harmful to the last degree, for a scientific man must be a judge—not an advocate.

I take it that it is hardly necessary to speak here of the necessity of one's interesting himself in a specialty, if he wishes to accomplish much in the way of original work nowadays. In

saying a word for specialties I am fully aware of all that has been urged against this kind of scholarship. The president of one of our greatest educational institutions said to me a few years ago that he had his doubts and fears about the outcome of this modern tendency among scientific men to specialization. Said he: "If this thing goes on, we shall have after a while a man who will know all about the stripes on a trilobite's tail, but he won't know anything else." It is very easy to ridicule a specialist, if the aims of his studies are not comprehended. Galvani studying the twitching of a frog's legs, Darwin breeding pigeons, and Agassiz planting sticks on a glacier, are inspiring or ridiculous in proportion as we comprehend the bearing or end of their studies. Whether studying the twitching of a frog's legs or the stripes on a trilobite's tail is an unworthy and contemptible occupation for an intelligent man depends, therefore, upon the motive and the ultimate objects of the study. And in regard to special work by those who aspire to broad culture in science, I can only say that a man who is incapable of doing and has not done special investigation, is not capable of taking a broad view of science in any of its relations. Mr. Darwin has done some of the best generalizing of our age, but before he did it he had done some of the best of specializing, and that too on such unpractical, uninteresting, and useless animals as the barnacles.

The necessity of specialties has sprung from a necessity of a division of labor in science, just as manual skill comes from a division of labor in the arts. Progress depends on such division.

But while we must confine ourselves to specialties, care should be taken not unnecessarily to diminish the field of our observations. There is a tendency on the part of a certain class of specialists to put everything under the microscope. This is an excellent way of seeing some things; but it is as difficult to examine a landscape with a microscope as it is to examine bacteria without one. Many questions in science can be studied satisfactorily only when we take a broad view of

them, and some discretion must be used in the application of methods.

Inquiries are often addressed to college professors as to what a student should take up as a specialty. This is a matter about which one who is not flippant is slow to give advice. There are some general truths, however, that are applicable to all cases:

First. You should not mistake your ambition for your natural calling. It doesn't follow, because you would like to be a Darwin, that you are cut out for one.

Second. You must not imagine because you love nature that you were born for a naturalist. This kind of a mistake is often made by young people.

It is not to be supposed that the man who studies plants is necessarily in love with plants, or that the entomologist is necessarily in love with insects.

The lover of nature is a poet whose fancy endows nature's bare facts with attributes that the naturalist, as such, knows nothing about. One sometimes hears it said that Wordsworth and Lowell would have made good naturalists. I doubt it; what they say of birds and trees and flowers and sunshine and snow are certainly no evidence of it.

The methods of the man of science deal not with the beauties of nature as beauties, but with the facts and laws. Do you suppose that our great ichthyologist is in love with fishes? Not at all; his interest in fishes is an interest in natural law. The naturalist is a classifier; and one must be guided in choosing natural history as a profession by the taste and fitness for classification and for nature's problems, rather than by one's admiration for the beauties of the flowers or the songs of the birds.

Besides, to be a successful man of science one must go into science very largely, because he can't help it—because he can't keep out of it. I mean, of course, that the particular branch of science he enters must so fill the demands of his mind, his temperament, and his tastes, that in any other occupation he

feels that he is not where he can make the most of himself and of his energies. Such men will have that professional pride, zeal, and ambition, without which everyone is doomed to a fatal mediocrity. This point was well illustrated in the experience of one of the prominent geologists of this country. The story of how he found his real calling was thus told me a short time ago by his father. Said he: "Edward studied civil engineering and did more or less work at it, and we had settled it in our minds that he was to be an engineer. But I noticed that although he did good work and rather enjoyed it, he didn't go out with the engineers every time he had a chance, and if he happened to want to go with them, it didn't take much to divert his attention from their work; he never offered to carry stakes or a chain just for the sake of being where engineering was going on. Then he took a fancy for mechanics, and studied that diligently for two or three years, and worked in the shops until he became pretty skillful, and then we settled it in our minds that Edward was going to be a mechanical engineer. But," said the father, "after all, I had my doubts about it; I noticed that while he was a good mechanic we never had to drag him away from his work; he was always on time at his meals and he went to and came from his work as if it were all a mere matter of duty."

"Finally, he took to geology, and then he lost his whole heart. Days were too short and nights too long; holidays he no longer knew; eating and sleeping became disagreeable necessities; social duties and everything else than his beloved science were put off till a more convenient season." It is hardly necessary for me to tell you that that young man made a geologist of whom we are all proud.

And this case is no exception, indeed it is quite a typical one. There is thus going on a process of natural selection that puts every man in his place—that is where he can best serve the world; and such a process makes it the more necessary that young people should make no mistakes in the choice of a calling or in the preparation for it.

And now I want to say a word about a part of the naturalist's education that is not comprehended in his directly preparatory studies ; at least, not as preparatory studies now go in this country, or in the ethical relations of his professional work.

Though I believe in specialties, I am not disposed to side with those who think that if a man is to be a specialist the sooner he begins his specialty the better. In a general way this proposition is correct, but in making such an admission it must be distinctly understood that all things which tend to broaden a man's scholarship form essential parts of his specialty. For while I believe most heartily in specialization I believe none the less heartily in a general education for the man of science. There has been a disposition of late to rush to the other extreme, largely because the old-fashioned classical education has, on the whole, been so unsatisfactory.

One should certainly have more than a single window in the intellectual house in which he must pass his life.

Specialize, yes, by all means specialize, but apart from your specialty see that your intelligence is properly cultivated on as many sides as possible. Grow up—not like a telegraph pole, useful, but bare and ugly—but like a well proportioned tree with branches on all sides to gather into your life the fresh air and the sunshine. *John C. Branner*

ROMAN EDUCATION * †

Illa laus est magno in genere et divitiis maximis liberos hominem educare generi monumentum et sibi. *Plaut.*

CHAP. I

THE ROMAN PEOPLE

In passing from the Hellenic Races to the Roman people, we enter a new phase of life and yet one which, while different,

*Authorities :—Chiefly based on Loci Classici; also Suetonius, de Gramm. ; Becker's Gallus; Erziehung and Jugendunterricht bei den Griechen u. Römern, von, J. L Ussing;

is yet, in its deeper relations to the progress of humanity of equal importance. The human spirit, which, under the limitations imposed by the Hellenic genius—self-control, virtue, and grace moves freely in every direction, mobile, subtle, living, joyous, presents itself in a less captivating form, but the personality of man, his self-conscious worth as an individual, his supremacy over the conditions of his own life are in this new field of educational study, even to the cursory eye, equally conspicuous. This personality does not now find a channel for its vigorous activity in the creative faculty and the exercise of the imagination. On this side, the Roman mind was essentially imitative. It conquered other nations in arms, and, while doing so, it made conquests also of foreign arts, and it was as acquisitions, not as native products, that it was adorned by them. Much of Roman literature, indeed, suggests vigour of mind and the force of mechanical adaptation of means to ends rather than the spontaneous outburst of genius. The Romans certainly acquired Greek culture, but it was as a graft on an original, homely, Roman stock. Their universal masterfulness was even here prominent. Literature was a conquest rather than the inevitable expression of the popular life; and hence it was the possession of the cultivated class alone: it was not, as among the Athenians, the atmosphere which all free citizens breathed. A clear and direct perception of his relation to the outer world, not as a dwelling place for the gods, but as a world to subdue and reduce to order, was the characteristic of the Roman. His bent of mind was consequently essentially practical, and, as practical, prosaic. If the

Ihne's History of Rome; Mommsen's History; Hegel's Philosophy of History; Krause's Greek and Roman Education; Bähr's Geschichte der Römischen Literatur.

†Chief dates in Roman History:—Rome Founded, 753 B. C.; Expulsion of Kings and beginning of Republic under Consuls, 509 B. C.; Victory of the Plebeians in the Constitution, 366 B. C.; Pyrrhus defeated and Rome supreme in Italy, 275 B. C.; End of the Second Punic War and establishment of Roman supremacy in Spain, 202 B. C.; Macedonia a Roman Province, 148 B. C.; Spain made into Roman Provinces, 123 B. C. Rome at this date supreme over the Mediterranean countries. The Gracchi and their attempted reforms, 133-121 B. C.; Civil War (Marius and Sulla,) 88-82 B. C.; Caius Julius Cæsar puts himself at the head of the government, 48 B. C.; Cæsar assassinated, 44 B. C. Augustus Cæsar Emperor, 30 B. C. 14 A. D; the Claudian Emperors. Then the Flavian Emperors, 70 A. D. to 96 A. D; Constantine the Great, 306-337.

Greek ideal was a beautiful soul in a beautiful body, the Roman ideal was a sound mind in a sound body. Manliness, energy, governing power, intense personality, and that keen perception of the relative rights of men in the matter of property, which is the natural product of an intense personality, formed the basis of the Roman character. It is the Spartan and not the Athenian Greek with whom the Roman has, from the first, points of contact; but in the former case, we have a society in which the individual was largely lost in the community; in the latter, we have a strong abiding individualism which yet spontaneously identifies itself with the general good. As can easily be understood in the case of a nation whose intellect was so essentially practical, whose life was so wholly a civil life, the chief legacy of thought which they bequeathed to humanity was their moral energy and their jurisprudence. The latter we still study as the basis of all modern law; and this it was which, during a long and critical period, combined with the influence of the Church to hold the civilization of Europe together, and finally to re-create it. Roman law, indeed, is itself a civilization.

The origin of this great people, as narrated by Livy, if we accept the substance of his narrative while discarding the legendary elements, was mean. It arose from a conflux of predatory bands on the Tiberine hills, and was supplied from time to time with a stream of refugees and other questionable immigrants from the natives of the plains, the hill Sabines and the Northern Etruscans. Its mixed origin is probably illustrated by the varying nationalities of its kings. The motley multitude which assembled in the newly-founded city is not inaptly designated by Livy—a colluvies.

There can be little doubt, if we accept this view of the origin of the Roman state, that we are justified in seeing (as Hegel does) in the circumstances that led to the foundation of the Roman state, the explanation of much of its future history. Every man's hand was against them and their hand was against every man. So bred and nurtured, the original lawless violence

found expression in self-defence and attack; and the necessity of guarding the infant State must have been the means of developing a love of country, a severity of municipal discipline, and a unity of patriotic purpose among the citizens, which were the sources of the city's future military greatness and partially explain its predatory history. Modern criticism, however, discards the Livian legend of the origin of Rome. We can see, establishing themselves on the Tiberine hills, members of the Latin race, as elsewhere on the plains of Latium. These Latin tribes developed on the hills which they occupied all the elements of the civic life characteristic of the Latin communities generally; and they did so quickly, under the necessities of their position as the advanced guard of Latium, and as masters of the river. They formed a union; and in defence of what they conceived to be their rights, and under the pressure of population, they gradually acquired the hegemony of all the Latin races, further extending their dominion to the Volsci on the South, the Sabellian races on the East, and the Etruscans on the North. This, though doubtless, the true explanation of the rise of the Roman state, has one defect (if one may venture an opinion against great authorities):—it pushes the theory of Latin unity of race too far, even almost to the ignoring of the mixed elements in the primitive community.* All the elements of the Etruscan, the Latin and the Sabellian were unquestionably mixed in the Roman of History. They did not lie side by side as heterogeneous, but very early constituted a unity.

The transference of power from the Kings to the Consuls and Senate was not only a transference from monarchical to an aristocratic or *oligarchic* government, but gave necessarily fresh strength and compactness to the already existing aristocracy. The senators now felt, each one in his own person, that he was a king of Rome, and with this accession of dignity there was also necessarily an increase of the sense of responsi-

*While we may set aside the (Livian) predatory origin of Rome, we must yet, I think, regard its mixed elements combined with its position as determining largely its character and its destiny.

bility, which must have told on the gravity and seriousness of individual character and bearing. Hence the Senate was truly described as an assemblage of Kings. Such a transference of the sovereignty, too, must have made them feel the necessity of preserving, as much as possible, the purity and exclusiveness of their order in the interests of the safety of the state, which would have been quickly overwhelmed by democratic license. There can be little doubt that, had the Democracy attained to that supremacy which characterized the Athenian Demos, Rome would never have developed into the Roman Empire. A great and noteworthy civic community it would doubtless have been, but little more than this. The Latin communities would have held their own outside the Servian wall, the Samnites and Sabines would have continued to lead an uncontrolled existence, and the already established Etruscan power would probably have permanently overawed the rising state. To create and maintain an empire there must be a continuity of purpose and policy, which is alien to a pure democracy. Whether we approve of an hereditary aristocracy or not, there can be no doubt that it conserves a tradition of individual and family life as well as of national policy, and so contributes strongly to the stability and power of a state in its domestic and especially in its foreign relations. At the same time it has its dangers, for it rests the continuance of the state on a class, the corruption of which is the corruption of the whole.

The elements of decay in the Republic which finally made the imperial form of government inevitable it is needless here to trace. It is not difficult now after the event to see that the growth of a city into that unwieldiness of bulk to which Rome attained when it became the centre of the commerce and life of the world, would have made it impossible for even a pure Senate after the mind of Cato himself to hold firmly the reins of power. But with the growth of the Roman Empire the senatorial purity and self-denying patriotism had, as a matter of fact, vanished; and the personal aggrandisement for which

the tributary wealth of the world gave such opportunities, combined with the corruptions caused by slavery, the divorce of the Italians from the land as free cultivators, the subversion of religious faith, and the introduction of those fuller ideas of personal development and culture which Greece taught, to put an end forever to the assemblage of kings. You find now no longer the austere old Roman Senate, but, as an eminent historian has remarked, your eye is arrested by a succession of great individuals who dominated the state. This prominence of individuals, and the impossibility of a city ruling an Empire, led to the Imperial Government which, while preserving ancient republican forms, preserved them as a mere phantom of the past, the lifeless form of a freedom that had been. Certainly one cause of the corruption of society was the neglect of education. The old austere domestic system had disappeared, and what had taken its place was not due to any deliberate State-policy, but only to the caprice of individuals—at least till after the Empire had been for some time established.

Our chief business, however, is with the Roman people in all their moral greatness and strength as factors in the World-history, taking first of all the period which ends with the fall of Carthage. So regarded, we find in them the greatest moral qualities—qualities, indeed, which the history of the past shows us to be more than all others necessary to the rise of a stable social organization. The popular idea of the Roman is that of *manly vigour*, and the popular idea is correct. To this it is added by Hegel that he was a creature of the abstract understanding—prosaic, utilitarian, practical. This also is true, and here we may find a key to the Roman character, even in the ideal sphere of his religion.

Religion—In religion the Roman was unquestionably serious, abstract, devout. The community between gods and men was not understood as among the Hellenes. There was no rich mythology to bridge over the space that separated gods and men. To the Roman, gods were not separate personalities

as to the Greek, who recognized no god to whom he did not give a concrete form. There was, however, with the Romans, a deep spiritual side to everything, and *that* the Roman abstracted, assigning to it the name and power of deity. The gods differed in importance only in so far as the abstract thought was more or less generalized. For example, if Jupiter and Juno are the abstractions of manhood and womanhood (Juno Lucina is the goddess of childbirth) and Dea-Dia or Ceres the creative power, their position in the Pantheon would necessarily be higher than Fides (fidelity to engagements), Terminus the boundary god, Silvanus the god of the forest, or Vertumnus the god of the circling year. So intense was this spiritual perception and so disposed to fit itself to abstract and set definite forms, that in the prayer for husbandmen, as Mommsen says, "there were invoked the spirit of fal-"lowing, of ploughing, of furrowing, sowing, covering in, "harrowing, and so forth. In like manner marriage, birth "and death, and every other natural event were endowed "with a sacred life." This is not to be confounded with Element-worship; it was the worship, or at least the abstract and reverential recognition, of the Unseen Power that resided in all things. The feeling of awe with which the Roman regarded the gods, as compared with the joyous frendliness of the Greeks, is well indicated by the fact that the latter when he sacrificed raised his eyes to heaven, the former veiled his head. The *gravitas* of the Roman character was largely due to the seriousness, approaching even sadness, which characterized his religion. The awe with which the Roman contemplated the Unseen is also indicated in the word "religion," whether we connect it with "binding" or with "reflection" (Conscience)—(*religare* or *relegere*).

The legends of the gods were borrowed from the Greeks and were not a Roman product. Foreign gods might be admitted to the freedom of the Roman State, but only as the attendants of the foreigners who were allowed to settle there. The supreme Roman god was Jupiter Optimus Maximus, not

merely as representative of abstract man, but as the reflection of the life of Rome as a civil life and the guardian of the State. Jupiter, as supreme god, was regarded also as father and source of all blessings and of creation, and preëminently the god of good faith and purity. There was a distinct ethical element in the gods of Rome. Jupiter was the god of life and light and purity, no less than the divine personification of the Roman State. Next to Jove was Mars, as reflecting the military spirit. The deep religious feeling was exhibited not only in the earlier periods of Roman history, but all through its history. Spite of Hellenic influences and the introduction of numerous gods, Jupiter Optimus Maximus always held a supreme place. The great Scipio Africanus went daily into the Temple to pray and ascribed all his triumphs to the protecting care of the god.

Even Velleius Paterculus, writing so late as the time of Tiberius, concludes his history with a prayer, part of which only has been preserved, but which begins thus:—

"Oh Jupiter (Capitolinus)! Oh Jupiter stator! Oh "Mars gradivus author of the Roman name! Oh Vesta, "guardian of the eternal fire! Oh all ye deities who have ex- "alted the present magnitude of the Roman Empire, raising it "to a position of supremacy over the world! Guard, preserve, "and protect, I beseech you, in the name of the Common- "wealth our present State," &c., &c.

Even if this be regarded as a merely conventional conclusion to a history, the fact that it was so would not affect our argument.

In the earlier generations of the Republic, the king acted as chief intercessor with the gods and appointed the priests and priestesses—a power which afterwards passed into the hands of the college of priests, who nominated a Pontifix Maximus. They were an aristocratic body, and constantly abused their office to promote the power of the Senate. Subsequently the Tribes elected to the office of priest, but during the time of Sulla this privilege was restored to the colleges, and in 63 B.

C., it returned to the Tribes. The Roman State was thus free from the evils of a hereditary priesthood. The priest never lost his character of being a civil functionary, just as originally the king, as head of the civil power, had been chief priest.

The Hellenic gods, with their accompanying mythical legends, began to enter into the Roman religious system even so early as the time of the kings; but even they, so to speak, became Romans, for religious as the Romans were, there was little of either the vaguely infinite or the artistic ideal in their objects of worship. The gods had a practical character, having to do with the civic economy, or with social relations, or moralities. Religious rites strengthened some of the best habits of the people. Such a system, while promoting the stability of the Commonwealth, could not possibly afford elements for the imagination and for Art to work upon. The finite aims and prosaic character of the Roman were thoroughly interwoven with his religious system, even when the primæval form of it had given way to the worship of the Hellenic deities. Church and State were truly one. In fact religion, as Ihne says, (1:5, p. 3,) "was with them not a matter of feeling or speculation, but of law," but as such it was a great reality.

As might have been expected, when Greek art entered Rome, it came as part of the spoils of the victor, and sculpture took the very practical form of the portraiture of distinguished men and ministered to the Roman pride of family.

In the last century of the Republic, the monotheism which had attached itself to the name of Jupiter Optimus Maximus became more prominent among the cultured few, and in early imperial times we find among the Stoics and Platonists a belief in one over-ruling God, which does much to atone for the reckless irreligion of the many. But, spite of many noble exceptions, when we consider the extinction of ancient tradition and belief in all that constituted the distinctive Roman 'conscience,' we are surprised that society still held together as it did for so many centuries. The Roman seemed still to draw

strength from his past history and an inherited patriotism may be said to have survived in its influence its own death. This Roman religion of patriotism finds expression in the De Officiis of Cicero, 1:17. Cari sunt parentes, cari liberi, propinqui, familiares; sed omnes omnium caritates patria una completa est; pro qua quis bonus dubitet mortem oppetere, ei si sit profuturus? We shall see the firm basis of this intense feeling in the family, and the civic and civil constitution, of which we shall now speak.

University of Edinburgh *S. S. Laurie*

To be continued

THE NEW ENGLAND ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND PREPARATORY SCHOOLS

SECOND SPECIAL MEETING

In accordance with action taken at the ninth annual meeting, October 13, 1894, the Association assembled in Jacob Steeper Hall of Boston University, on Saturday morning, Dec. 29, 1894. The meeting had been specially called for the discussion of certain resolutions originally offered by Dr. John Tetlow on Oct. 12, 1894.

The Association came to order at 9:45 with President L. Clark Seelye in the chair.

The Secretary, Ray Greene Huling, announced the appointment of Dr. John Tetlow, Professor William R. Shipman, and Hon. Frank A. Hill, as the representatives of this Association on the joint Conference which is to prepare lists of books for entrance examinations in English. This action was in accordance with the "Special Recommendation" in the report of the Philadelphia Conference on College Entrance Requirements in English, in May, 1894.

The Secretary also read the names of eighteen persons whom the Executive Committee nominated for membership. Their election was deferred to the next regular meeting in accordance with a provision of the Constitution.

The Chair directed the reading of the vote of the Association by reason of which this special meeting was called, and also of the resolutions which were to be discussed. The latter are here given :

RESOLUTIONS

Resolved, That the interests of education would be promoted by a closer articulation than now exists between the secondary schools and the higher institutions of New England.

Resolved, That, as an effective means of securing such closer articulation, the satisfactory completion of any one of the four courses of study embodied in the programmes submitted on pages 46 and 47 of the Report of the Committee of Ten, or at least of any one of these programmes that includes Latin, should be accepted as adequate preparation for corresponding courses in the colleges and scientific schools.

Resolved, That the authorities of the colleges and scientific schools represented in this association be, and they hereby are, requested to take such action as will give effect to the foregoing implied recommendation.

Resolved, That the Secretary be requested to send a copy of these resolutions to the President and Faculty of every college and scientific school represented in this association, and that the Committee of Conference be requested to bring the same to the attention of the Commission of Colleges in New England, and to request that body to take appropriate action thereon.

The Chair then called upon the mover of the resolutions to take the floor for the purpose of opening the discussion.

DR. JOHN TETLOW : If I were connected with a classical fitting school only, I should not have felt impelled, except, perhaps, from a general interest in educational progress, to offer the resolutions which we are to discuss this morning. The course of study of the Girls' Latin School is so satisfactorily adjusted to the entrance requirments of the colleges that I see no reason, in behalf of that school, for suggesting innovations. But I am connected also with a secondary school—the Girls' High School—which is a typical representative not only of the Boston high schools, but of English high schools throughout New England ; and it is the conditions under which that school and schools of its class do their work that have impelled me to offer the resolutions on which you are to take action today. If, in the course of this discussion, I should make special reference to the Boston high schools in illustrating characteristic conditions, I beg you not to suppose that I think an important educational question should be decided, or even debated, with reference to the needs of a particular locality, but to remember that such references are due solely to the fact that I am obliged to draw my illustrations from the field with which I am most familiar.

The first consideration of importance bearing on the question before us is the fact that many high school pupils do not decide to continue their studies at a college until they have completed the high school course of study. But, although they have then fully reached the stage of mental culture required for collegiate work, they cannot enter the higher institutions, under existing conditions, without further special preparation, for the reason that their previous course of study has been out of relation to the requirements established for admission to those institutions. For example, from one-fourth to one-third of the work included in the Boston high school course of study—a course of study, by the way, excellent in itself—does not count for admission to college; but at the close of the last school year, seven graduates of the Girls' High School had decided to continue their studies at several different colleges. I sent for these girls and ascertained from them individually what deficiencies they needed to make good, before they could enter the college of their choice. In order to make it possible for them to complete their preparation within the high school, I indicated to them severally what work they should do during the summer to enable me to meet their needs with the fewest possible additions to, or modifications of, the work of the regular classes, to some of which I knew it would be practicable for me, without sacrifice of their interests, to assign them. When September came, I found that, although the girls themselves had cordially welcomed my suggestions, the family physician, in several cases, had—very properly, no doubt—strongly advised against the proposed study during the summer; so that the work laid out had not been done. I will not weary you with further details, but will merely add that six of the seven girls to whom I have referred are now completing their preparation for college under private tutors or in private schools. At the end of the year they will be prepared for college, but they will have been subjected to needless expense, and they will have lost a year in time.

Now a secondary school course of study which furnishes adequate training for those who are to go no farther than the secondary school, also furnishes adequate preparation for collegiate work; and the satisfactory completion of a good secondary school course of study should admit the student, without further special preparation, to appropriate courses in college. Moreover the courses of study presented in the four programmes of the Committee of Ten embody the essentials

of a good secondary school course of study for three reasons: (1) they give adequate and approximately continuous recognition to the five fundamental subjects: English, foreign languages, mathematics, science, and history; (2) they postpone bifurcation until the third year of the course,—in other words, they enable the student, without prejudice of any sort to his secondary training, to test himself in these five directions before making the momentous decision which is to affect his whole future life; (3) in view of all the considerations, both theoretical and practical, that must be taken into the account, these programmes present the subjects which they include, in the best order of sequence.

"But," it will perhaps be said, "let it be granted that the programmes of the Committee of Ten are good secondary school programmes; what of it? They are not the only good secondary school programmes in existence. There are others equally good in actual operation. Why replace programmes that have stood the test of experience, by untried programmes that even on theoretical grounds are no better?" The answer to this objection is easy and obvious. The programes of which it can be justly said that they are as good as those of the Committee of Ten are comparatively few in number, and they are at variance with, or at least out of relation to, one another. No one of them stands the ghost of a chance of securing general acceptance. Suppose I should commend to you for general adoption, as a good secondary school programme that has stood the test of experience, the programme followed in the Boston high schools. Suppose Mr. Goodwin, who is to follow me in the discussion, should do the same for the programme of the Newton high school, and Mr. Goodrich for that of the Salem high school, how large a following do you think we should command? You would justly charge us with monumental assurance and conceit. But the programmes of the Committee of Ten, besides being intrinsically sound, were made under exceptionally favorable conditions. They embody the thought of a host of expert advisers; they are representative in character, not individual; national in origin, not local; and they have been carefully studied, and in the main approved, by competent critics in all parts of the country. I am aware that the report of the Committee of Ten has been adversely criticized; but the adverse criticism has been largely expended on a single alleged feature of it. It has been charged that the report asserts the doctrine of equivalent values,—the

doctrine, I mean, that one subject is as good as another for the training of the mind. This, as I have said elsewhere, is an unwarranted allegation. The report merely says that subjects having the same time allotment and pursued with the same seriousness should be accorded equal rank for purposes of admission to college, which is quite another thing. I grant that even this mild form of the doctrine of equivalent values may be open to question. President Hyde, you will remember, pronounced it "absurd" at our October meeting. But whatever may be said of this doctrine in the abstract, no one, I think, will be disposed to condemn the conservative application made of it by the Committee in the programmes they have recommended. The doctrine, as there embodied, is practically non-existent. The programmes of the Committee, I repeat, embody the essentials of a good secondary school course of study; they are more likely than any others to command general acceptance; and the satisfactory completion of any one of them should be officially recognized as adequate and acceptable preparation for collegiate work. One of the practicable modes of making these programmes a means of closer articulation between the colleges and secondary schools is described in a letter recently addressed by President Eliot to the Michigan Schoolmasters' Club. He says:

> Let a group, the larger the better, of American universities maintain admission examinations in all the subjects which enter into those four programmes, let every institution belonging to the group, and as many other institutions as can be brought to act with them, declare each for itself how many and what examinations it will absolutely require for admission, and how many and what choices among the remaining subjects it will permit, taking care, however, not to demand more in the sum of prescribed and optional subjects than the total represented in any one of the four programmes of the Committee of Ten. Each university or college might make its own arrangements as to the use it would make of the complete set of examinations; but all would maintain the same standard in each subject, and would permit any and every subject in the list to count toward admission in some way or other. By means of large options taken from a uniform and ample list of studies, the individuality of different schools and of different colleges can be preserved.

Up to this point I think it probable that I have had your sympathy. The next step you may find it more difficult to take with me. But, as Socrates would say, let us follow unhesitatingly whithersoever the argument may lead us. I confidently believe that the adoption by the colleges of the standard set by these programmes, as an optional or alternative basis of requirement for admission to college, will involve no

increase in the amount of work demanded of the secondary schools. Before giving reasons for this belief, let me remind you that I have under my charge 1,100 girls and young women of from 12 to 19 years of age. When you remember the physiological changes that take place within those years, you will not, I am sure, think that I speak too strongly when I say that there is probably no teacher in this association who carries so heavy a burden of responsibility in the matter of danger to health from overwork and pressure as I. If any one here has reason to shrink from an untried programme involving increased demands on pupils of high school age, it is I. But I say unhesitatingly that the adoption of the programmes of the Committee of Ten will not, in my judgment, involve increase in the amount of work demanded of the secondary schools. Look for a moment at the programmes themselves. They say nothing whatever about amounts of work. They merely prescribe the number of recitation periods to be given to the several subjects. But I suspect that the suggestion of increase lies, to many minds, in the substitution of 20 periods for the more usual 15. This substitution, however, which at the first glance seems to point towards increase in the amount of work to be demanded, will merely operate to transfer a part of the time devoted by the pupil under the 15-period plan to private study, to work to be done under the guidance of the teacher; for 5 of the 20 periods are to be given to unprepared work It merely means that, as there will be less time given for private study within the school hours, the lessons assigned for private study must be somewhat shorter. In the Girls' Latin School we have had 16 years' experience of the 20-period plan under a six years' course of study. Lessons assigned for private study to the first and second year classes are expected to occupy 50 minutes in preparation, those assigned to the third and fourth year classes 60 minutes, and those assigned to the fifth and sixth year classes 70 minutes. The periods devoted to unprepared work, as I have already indicated, serve the purpose of enabling the teacher to give more intelligent direction to the pupils' private study. Those schools indeed in which the 15-period plan nominally prevails usually have, owing to such general exercises as singing, a 17 or 18-period plan in actual use. The notion that the adoption of the 20-period plan would involve increase of work for the pupil, doubtless arises largely from a failure to recognize that this plan involves a slight reduction in the length of essons assigned for private study together with a

corresponding increase of work to be done under the guidance and inspiration of the teacher.

The passage of the resolutions under discussion, followed by favorable action on the part of the colleges, will operate as an invitation to the secondary schools to modify their courses of study in the direction of the ideals embodied in the report and programmes of the Committee of Ten. Such an invitation, I believe, would be responded to with alacrity by the English high schools. Look, for example, at the high schools of this city. The English high school for boys has approximately 800 pupils, the girls' high school 800 more, the Roxbury high school 500, the Dorchester high school 250, and so on. All these schools have a four years' course of study; but the number of graduates who go from them to the colleges is insignificant. If, by some means, their common course of study, without losing its distinctive character, could be made to lead naturally to college, the number of graduates resorting to the colleges would quickly be increased threefold. That I do not exaggerate the growing tendency on the part of the graduates of English high schools to continue their studies at college, will be evident when I mention the fact that, even under the present unfavorable conditions, the Boston Girls' High School stands fourth in point of numbers among 124 different institutions represented in the student body of Radcliffe College. The figures showing the number of representatives from each of the four schools sending the largest numbers are as follows:

The Cambridge Latin School	24
The Boston Girls' Latin School	15
The Cambridge School (Mr. Gilman's)	13
The Boston Girls' High School	11

The failure of the resolutions, and consequent inaction on the part of the colleges, will be as disheartening to the class of schools to which I have referred as favorable action will be encouraging. It will mean, moreover, that no practical results are to follow the work of the Committee of Ten; but that the report of that Committee, after arousing an interest mainly academic and temporary, is to evaporate in talk.

In closing, let me remind you that the decision to be reached in this discussion is not of local interest merely, it is of national significance. Let me remind you also that this is not the first time that you have been engaged in work of national significance. Ten years ago we came together to coöperate with one another in bringing about closer articulation between

the colleges and secondary schools of New England. The movement then begun has since spread to other parts of the country. Within a few years, an association similar to our own has been formed in the Middle States, and at the present time a third is in process of formation in the Northern Central States. Two years ago President Eliot, referring to the work of this Association, said to the National Council of Education that he had observed in New England that, when representatives of different institutions came together to confer on matters of common interest, the discussions were apt to be fruitful of results ; and that he thought a satisfactory solution of the problem then before the Council lay in the organization of conferences of experts from the schools and colleges of the country on the leading subjects taught in secondary schools and required for admission to college. The result of that suggestion was the organization of the Committee of Ten, and the subsequent organization of the nine conferences represented in its report. Our work to-day is the legitimate and natural outgrowth of our earlier work. I repeat, it does not concern New England alone ; it is of national significance.

Mr. E. J. Goodwin : I agree with the previous speaker in urging the importance of the general question involved in these resolutions. It touches the interest of the college, the secondary school, and the grammar school. It concerns directly and vitally the Latin schools, the English high schools, and the more numerous class of public high schools whose work is less specialized. In the brief time allotted me for the discussion of these resolutions I shall speak exclusively from the standpoint of the class of schools last mentioned.

If the resolutions before us receive the sanction of this association, and are adopted by the colleges and scientific schools of New England, the most obvious and immediate consequence will be a radical revision of the courses of study designed for pupils preparing for college. That this will be the natural result is apparent for two reasons.

In the first place, if the colleges change their requirements for admission or adopt "an optional or alternative basis of requirement," the public high school must conform or be discredited in the judgment of the community. The school has no alternative ; it *must* attain the standard set by the college.

In the second place, the first two of the four programmes prepared by the Committee of Ten are fundamentally better

than those now prescribed by the colleges and scientific schools. They are broader, more substantial, and better balanced. They contain a generous infusion of the scientific spirit of a scientific age, and for this reason will be accepted gladly by the people. The introduction of physical geography, physics, and chemistry, and the larger measure of time given to English history and a modern foreign language can not fail to produce a more harmonious and normal development of the mind, and therefore a class of men and women better prepared to meet the conditions of modern life. Those of us who are in close touch with the patrons of the public high schools, know quite well that a large number of thoughtful men and women who send their sons and daughters to college, are profoundly dissatisfied with the traditional curriculum which contains a maximum of Latin, Greek, and mathematics, a minimum of history and English and no science. I am in constant receipt of earnest and intelligent protests against the restrictions of the old-time curriculum.

The amount of work to be required by the four programmes is a matter of great solicitude to those of us who teach in the secondary schools. Bearing upon this point, the distinguished author of the resolutions has pronounced a most remarkable judgment. His words are these: "The adoption by the colleges of the standard set by these programmes will involve no increase in the amount of work demanded by the secondary schools." If this judgment be correct, it constitutes, in my mind, the strongest argument that has been urged against the adoption of these resolutions. My reason is this. If the number of subjects in the enriched programme is to be made larger, and if no more time or effort is needed for their mastery, then it must be that the subjects, in the average, are to be treated less thoroughly and less extensively. Subjects that do not appear at all in the requirements for admission to the course of study leading to the degree of A. B. in Amherst, Dartmouth, Williams, Smith, Vassar, Mount Holyoke, and some other colleges of New England, occupy 28 per cent. of the whole number of recitation hours designated for the first or classical programme proposed by the Committee of Ten.

On the common basis of reckoning, this new "classical programme" contains two more subjects than are required for admission to Harvard, and four more than are demanded at Yale. That the four programmes when defined by the colleges, will prove to be more difficult than the present requirements of Yale and Harvard, I firmly believe; but that these

increased demands will interfere with their acceptance in our populous and wealthy communities, I do not believe. To my mind one good reason for approving Dr. Tetlow's resolutions, is that these new programmes stand for an increase in the quantity and an improvement in the quality of the work demanded of the lower schools.

But how can the already overburdened high schools, working under a four years' programme, carry this added burden? There is only one answer to this question. They must seek for help from the grammar schools. A five years' high school curriculum in preparation for college, resting upon a nine years' grammar school programme, is not desirable, and in some communities is not acceptable. If the grammar schools respond to this appeal, the good results to come from the adoption of these four programmes will be shared by the grammar schools quite as much as by the high schools. Did I not believe that the enrichment of the grammar school curriculum by the introduction of several subjects now reserved for the high schools, is both desirable and likely to be accomplished in the near future, I should feel compelled to vote against these resolutions. To attempt to deal with all the subjects in any one of these four programmes in any adequate or satisfactory manner within the limits of four years, seems to me impracticable from the stand-point of the public high school. To be sure, the plan of giving five of the twenty recitation periods to unprepared work would be a very helpful one. It would stimulate the skill of the teacher, and greatly improve the temper and scholarship of the school; but the scheme is too expensive for immediate and general adoption.

II

The reconstruction and reform of the so-called English or general courses of our public high schools will be brought about more slowly. Very few schools would adopt at once the third and fourth programmes prepared by the Committee of Ten. Time and the subtle influences of an enriched classical curriculum must be relied upon to accomplish desired results. When the colleges come to define the scope and character of the new requirements, and seriously undertake to provide the high schools with a preparatory classical curriculum that shall accord with the spirit of the time—one rich in content and

pregnant with power—the beneficent results will not be restricted to the college-preparatory department, but will permeate the whole school. The first two programmes proposed by the Committee of Ten—from which the future classical course will doubtless be made—can not fail to be attractive to increasing numbers of ambitious and capable boys and girls who have no intentions of continuing their study in college. This turn of the tide in favor of an effective and popular college-preparatory course, will set in motion currents of influence to rectify the programmes of studies now offered to pupils who have not the college in view.

A careful examination of the list of subjects omitted, as well as those included in the four sample programmes, will reveal the weaknesses of our present English or general courses of study, and will suggest the lines along which they may be strengthened.

No principle laid down by the Committee of Ten will be of greater service to the public high schools than the one which rejects all short information courses of study, and steadily adheres to the fundamental notion that "each principal subject shall be taught thoroughly and extensively."

Is it too much to expect that the adoption of these resolutions will hasten the day when this sound doctrine shall be applied in formulating all the courses of study in our public high schools? When that day comes we may confidently expect that the number of roads leading from the high school to the gate of the college will be increased, that the number accepting the privileges of the higher education will be enlarged, and that this in turn will react upon the school to quicken its life and to enhance its efficiency.

In short, if these resolutions meet with the approval of this association, and are adopted by the colleges and scientific schools of New England, two results may be expected: the education to be obtained in preparation for college will be much broader and better, and the courses of instruction open to those who do not go beyond the high school will be reorganized and placed upon a more substantial basis.

III

In what I have said thus far, I have had in mind the public high schools that are large and well equipped. What shall be said of schools that are small and poorly equipped? How will

the proposed changes in entrance requirements affect them?

It cannot be assumed that the author of these resolutions intended to convey the idea that all the colleges should make their standard of admission as high as the one set by the four sample programmes. He has expressly disclaimed any such intention. And yet, in my judgment, to draw such an inference from the second resolutions is quite natural, if not inevitable. If this is not the meaning, will some one tell us just what the message is, which these resolutions will convey from this Association to the smaller colleges?

It will be a great misfortune to the small high schools of New England, if the requirements for admission to college are raised to a point so high that the schools cannot reach it. These schools are now quite prosperous. Under present conditions they are growing rapidly in numbers and usefulness. I may be mistaken, but I believe one great source of their prosperity to be the favorable conditions under which their pupils are admitted to several of the colleges.

To illustrate, take the second of the four programmes of the Committee of Ten, the "Latin scientific." Drop from it physical geography, botany or zoölogy, astronomy and meteorology, trigonometry and higher algebra, geology or physiography and anatomy, physiology, and hygiene; reduce slightly the amount of time given to history and English; make a few rearrangements; and you have not only a fairly satisfactory course of studies for those who do not go beyond the high school; but also a college-preparatory curriculum sufficient to meet the requirements for admission to the college course of study leading to the degree of B. L. at Dartmouth, A. B. at Williams, B. S. at Amherst, Ph. B., C. E. and M. E. at Brown University, Ph. B. at Wesleyan University, A. B. at Vassar and Wellesley, and B. L. at Smith and Mount Holyoke.

This adjustment of relations between the colleges just mentioned and the small high schools has grown up naturally, and is most fortunate for the schools. These colleges seem to recognize the fact that many of these small high schools should not attempt to teach Greek, and that they cannot be expected to furnish instruction in more than one modern foreign language. Several other colleges might bring themselves into harmonious relations with this class of schools, if they would follow the lead of Wellesley, and accept a preparation in some science as the equivalent of a minimum requisite in a third foreign language. I trust that nothing will be done by this Association

to mar these happy conditions. The small high schools cannot meet the increased requirements of the four programmes in a four years' course. Their teaching force is inadequate to a more extended programme of studies. The means of the communities in which they are placed will not justify a larger outlay for their maintenance. They can give only a part of their time and attention to pupils who go to college. It will be a long time before the grammar schools in the small towns can give the aid to the high schools that some of us confidently look for in the more populous communities.

I regret that I cannot state to you just how many boys and girls are sent to college year by year, either directly or indirectly, from the country high schools of New England. I believe the aggregate is a large one. What effect these resolutions are designed to have upon the small high school, I cannot tell. What effect they will have on them if adopted by the Association I cannot venture to predict. My hope is that no action will be taken by this Association that will tend to bar out from the colleges and scientific schools that sturdy stock that comes from the country high schools. Many of these girls and boys that were born and bred in the country are well worth educating, not only for their own sake, but also for the sake of the higher education and the country. Contact with the college is a vitalizing one for all schools, especially for those remote from the centres of wealth and culture. No one believes that these small schools should be managed in the interests of the insignificant percentage of students that may go from them to college.

On the contrary, the very reason why these schools should be kept in touch with the colleges is that the many who do not go beyond the secondary school may acquire something of the spirit and ideals that issue from the life and thought of the college. The small high school can not offer its pupils several courses of study. Many of them can not properly maintain more than one. It is very important to them, therefore, that the smaller colleges shall so shape their requirements for admission that any small school that attempts to meet them may present one curriculum, which shall be satisfactory alike to those who do and to those who do not go to college.

If Harvard and Yale adopt the four programmes, may we not hope that the small colleges will prescribe such groups of subjects as will bring their requirements for admission wholly within the limits set by the larger colleges? Then the require-

ments of the larger and smaller institutions will agree in kind, and differ only as a whole differs from a part.

Interpreted in this way the resolutions, if passed by the Association and adopted by the colleges, may serve to strengthen the smaller as well as the larger high schools. I hope that the resolutions will be ratified by the Association.

MR. A. L. GOODRICH: *Mr. President and Members of the Association*—Allow me to preface my remarks by stating that I do not wish to appear in any way as an antagonist to real progress. I am intensely interested in the movement so vigorously stimulated by the report of the Committee of Ten. I agree with Dr. Tetlow that we are discussing a matter of national importance, but I do not believe that adverse action on his resolutions, as they stand, will have any detrimental effect upon the course of educational advance. The recommendation of the Conferences and the suggestion of the Committee have already passed beyond the danger of "evaporating in talk." Few, if any, of these suggestions were original and untried. Nearly all had been in use somewhere, and they are now passing rapidly into general practice and will continue thus to do, so far as they commend themselves and as fast as local conditions permit. This movement no man and no association can prevent. The special phase with which we are confronted to-day is peculiar and important, but not vital. These programmes were put forward as samples. They are suggestive, tentative, temporary. The life of the Committee's Report does not reside in them.

Considering the source of these resolutions, and their defenders, it seems not an unfair inference that the secondary schools are now for the first time being invited to do what they have long felt should be their privilege, namely, to take part with the college in determining the conditions of admission. This, then, is the time to speak plainly. Let us state our objections frankly and have them freely discussed, to the end that our advance may be secure, not ephemeral. Let us not, if we can avoid it, advocate anything to-day over which we shall need to repent before many years have passed.

In the October portion of this discussion no mention was made of recommending the satisfactory completion of these programmes as an optional or alternative preparation for admission to college. The intrusion of this suggestion now largely saps the force of any objections which can be made,

but does it not also reduce these resolutions dangerously near the zero point as to possibility of usefulness? Harvard College some years ago threw open multitudes of doors of entrance. Who uses them to-day? This will merely add another. *Cui bono?* No, let us discuss this question as if we really knew what we wished. Let us treat these resolutions as if of value, or else dismiss them altogether.

In the spirit thus indicated, then, I submit the following questions. No one will be more pleased than I, if they receive satisfactory answers.

I

Is it certain that these programmes are not beyond our attainment within the near future?

They are admittedly not practicable to-day. Ideals they are called, not actualities. Are they likely to become practicable within the next ten years? I can only speak on this point with direct reference to my personal experience. Of course this experience may be unique and, therefore, having no bearing upon general conditions, may have no place in this discussion. Local evils must be met by local action. I am persuaded, however, that we are not alone in our trouble and, therefore, make bold to speak.

Two months ago, for convenience of study on the part of our teachers, I placed on one of the blackboards in my school a diagrammatic representation of the programmes of Table IV. Under it I placed our own programmes similarly constructed. The usefulness of this kind of representation consists in the fact that the eye at once catches the relative time allotment and the breaks in continuity, if they exist. Over this diagram we have been pondering ever since its construction.

It takes but a slight calculation to show that the classical programme of Table IV. calls for almost two periods per week, for four years, more than ours. We are then called upon to add that amount to the demands which our school at present makes upon its pupils. Gentlemen, I do not see how this can be done! We not only cannot add more, but we cannot carry out our present programme in the best way. So much has to be done in so limited a period that the best results are not attainable.

This is the condition at present. Now what promise does

the future contain? Better teachers, and improved methods in both elementary and secondary schools, the relegation of the elements of certain subjects to the elementary school, unprepared exercises, better brains—these are all promised. How much gain are we to expect from them? Frankly, I do not know! Do you? As to unprepared class exercises, the suggestion has been put forward with so much earnestness that I had supposed some new educational idea must underlie it. That I might secure this idea I have lately been conducting a correspondence which has extended over a good share of the United States. I am not sure that I have captured the idea, but the upshot of the correspondence is this: Either use the German method of studying with your class, or the French method of lecturing to your class, or condense into these hours the bits of exercises heretofore scattered among many hours. On the whole, the opinions of my correspondents agree with mine, that a moderate gain may be made by adopting the suggestion of the Committee. It is fair to say, however, that some well-known and successful educators deny flatly the usefulness of the suggestion.

According, then, to the best estimate we are able to make at present, the suggested improvements will not do more than enable us to carry on our present programme with that intelligence and that freedom from pressure necessary for good work.

But we have no sooner reached this conclusion than we are informed that these programmes are only of temporary value, and are sure to be improved as soon as the reforms in the elementary schools are completed. Improved! How, if you please? By transferring some subjects to the elementary schools, and replacing them by others demanding an equivalent in time? There can be no objection. By substituting anything requiring more time and harder work? I protest. President Eliot has said earlier in this discussion that "Such changes as have been made in the requirements for admission to Harvard College have always been in the direction of making them harder." What does he mean by "harder"? More subjects, more work in each subject, or both? The changes that have been made in these requirements answer plainly that he means both. Is this the way these programmes are to be "improved"? If so, is not this discussion an anachronism? Does it not belong to the middle of the 20th century rather

than to the end of the 19th? At all events let us be sure we wish these requirements raised before we ask to have it done.

II

Are these programmes likely to be valuable, if attained? and, if so, to whom?

Would not the general effect be to select out those pupils whose natural aptitudes are brightest, and whose environment is most favorable, remanding the others to other pursuits much more effectually than is at present true? If a high grade of scholarship is the sole object in view, I can conceive of no better plan than to demand for admission a satisfactory completion of these programmes, or others of equal value, presupposing, as they do, a previous elementary training of corresponding vigor. The pupils thus selected would have a preparation both thorough and broad. For the sake of intellectual superiority in the future, there ought to be some colleges demanding such a quantity and quality of preparation for their work. That is, there ought to be in this country what M. Fouillée, calls an intellectual élite, but I am not sure that it is the duty of the public school to take so large a hand in training it. Granting, then, that there should be colleges making such demands, I believe that there should be others whose demands should be less, not in quality but in quantity. The possibility of uniformity in college requirements in quantity, I do not believe to be either feasible or desirable.

But let us get closer to my main point. The school is not all that educates our youth. There are other things in their environment which do, and in my opinion ought to influence them to a considerable extent. It was asserted in the October portion of this discussion that "the pressure exerted by parents on their children to work for intellectual advancement has distinctly diminished, and that the distractions taking the children from school work have distinctly increased. For pupils from thirteen to eighteen years of age the permitted distractions from mental labor have increased very much within my memory." There is no question about the truth of this. For instance, there was a young lady in my school a few years ago who claimed to have attended 36 parties in one winter, and then complained of overpressure in the school!

The same authority also asserted that "somehow or other we have established in this county an exceedingly low standard

of work for children in schools ; the amount of study done by the pupils, and the amount of genuine teaching done by the teachers, are both deplorably low. The average American parent has got fixed in his mind too low a standard of mental work for his children."

It is not my own belief, and I hope it is not true, that the word "average" belongs in the last sentence which I have quoted. The substance of the assertion, however, is true. But when these two points have been conceded it remains to be asserted that these are not the classes holding the balance of power, nor are they the classes which need influence us to any serious extent in making our programmes. There is another class considerable in number, reasonable and intelligent in character, who are perfectly willing that their children be held to high standards of achievement, but object strenuously to the quantity of work demanded. They are unwilling that their children should spend all their time on books to the exclusion of a controlled amount of proper society and to the substantial destruction of home life. This class contains many of our best and most intelligent people. They will not be ignored in our schools. Are their ideas entitled to any consideration here ? Gentlemen of the colleges, ought you all to say to this class, thus willing to offer you candidates well trained in a range somewhat narrower than these programmes call for, "No, you cannot enter ; your attainments are not broad enough " ? If so, you close the door of higher education in the face of an extremely valuable class.

Some of the colleges, let me repeat, ought to place their bars thus high in the interests of the highest and the best that education can afford, and we have at last from Harvard college a plain, clear intimation of her intention. Very well, all honor and success to my beloved alma mater, but will not her feeders hereafter be the endowed school and the academy ? With the public school, with extremely few exceptions, must she not part company ? But, granting this in the interests of the best, ought we to invite all the colleges in the association to set their bars at the same height ?

III

Are these the only good programmes possible ?

It has been stated that the "education which the American high school has heretofore given to those less fortunate persons whose education must cease at eighteen or nineteen, has been

a less well-planned and a less judicious education than their more fortunate comrades, whose education is to be prolonged until they are twenty-five or twenty-six years old, receive up to eighteen or nineteen." Up to eight or ten years ago I have no doubt this was true. I am not by any means sure of it to-day. The increase in the requirements for admission to college, coupled with no corresponding extension of time and no advance in the standard of admission to the school, has, I am very much afraid, resulted in considerably deteriorating the educational value of our classical course. I admit that this may be only a temporary evil, to be cured when the elementary course shall have been strengthened and enriched, but I am not at all certain that even then our classical course will not be rivalled by our English. I have certainly somehow gained the conviction that in the best of our English high schools, and in the English departments of many of our unseparated high schools, strong, well-planned, judicious courses are being carried out quite competent to rank, both in interest and content, alongside our classical courses and alongside the English course of Table IV.

If I am right, these courses ought to lead through appropriate doors into corresponding college courses.

If I am wrong, the adoption of the programmes of Table IV. will certainly tend to place the programmes of our English high schools on a much more satisfactory basis.

During the past year I have carefully examined the courses prescribed in every considerable manual training school in the country, and I have come from that examination with the conviction that there is no *a priori* reason why their graduates should not have an ability, commensurate with that of the graduates of our classical courses, to observe accurately, to record correctly, to group and reason justly, and to express adequately the results of these operations. Nor do I see why they are not quite as likely to seek for and hold fast to lofty ideals of beauty, honor, duty, and love. For them, too, the chief aim of education, namely, usefulness and happiness, seems likely to be reached. Ought not these courses also to lead to appropriate courses in college and university?

If now I may sum up my three points by answering them myself according to my present impressions, they are as follows:

1. These programmes are not now and can not for many years be within the reach of any, except a very few, of our public schools.

2. Even if attainable, or attainable within a reasonable time, they are not likely to be of real value to any except a very few pupils, and are therefore of doubtful value to both college and school. This is not because of the content of the programmes, but because of the amount they demand.

3. They are other equally good programmes.

Now I admit that these answers may be incorrect. Local difficulties may have prevented my obtaining a comprehensive view of the whole field—my horizon may be too narrow ; I may not judge correctly the results to flow from the proposed action ; I am possibly mistaken as to the extent to which the higher education should be open to those who wish for, or can take, but a part of it ; but, if I am right, these points bear directly against adopting these resolutions.

In continuing the discussion, kindly bear in mind that I have given you impressions forced upon my mind from experience. Nothing yet said has completely removed them. I am nevertheless ready to abandon them, and vote for the resolutions if those who favor them will give convincing reasons, or even if it is made plain that, all things considered, the cause in which we are all interested will probably be promoted by trying the experiment.

MR. JAMES JENKINS : *Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen:* —The Worcester English High School, which I represent, numbers about 750 pupils. Its aim is to give an education in English, Modern Languages, Sciences, and Mathematics, which shall be equivalent in training to that given in the classics. It is my personal belief that such a training is equal in educational value, and as good a preparation for advanced courses of study as a strictly classical course. As matters now stand, there are but two colleges in New England which our graduates cannot enter, provided they have taken all the Latin we offer, namely, the last three years of the course. As a matter of fact, those who have graduated and desired to enter college, have been under the necessity of studying Latin for entrance, because they have not chosen that study ; yet they were thoroughly qualified to enter college. Latin was a "*sine qua non*" for entrance.

The English High School desires to send its pupils on to college. True, the scientific schools have courses suitable for pupils

who have neglected Latin, but the requirements for entrance are too meagre and of a distinctly lower grade as a whole.

In Table IV. of the Report of the Committee of Ten, Course III. affords an opportunity for pupils who have taken modern languages, to enter corresponding courses in college. The course of study of our own school would enable a pupil to go to college, offering any one of Courses II., III., or IV. in Table IV.

MR. JAMES B. TAYLOR: After a discussion of two hours, in which the details involved have been very thoroughly presented by Dr. Tetlow, and the difficulties and advantages discussed by Principals Goodwin, Goodrich, and Jenkins, there seems little need of lengthy remarks by me at this hour. I am in favor of the resolutions, because I am in favor of almost any reputable scheme which renders it possible and attractive for a larger number of boys and girls of varied tastes and capacities, to continue their studies and mental training beyond the period of high school discipline, and these four programmes seem to furnish an eminently respectable scheme for that end. I do not understand Mr. Goodwin's criticism of the classical programme, that it increases the difficulty of preparation for Harvard. Counting up the number of hours involved for entrance examinations in the third and fourth years, I think it will be found to call for less than the present requisite.

Dr. Tucker, of Dartmouth College, in a talk to the Newton Club recently on the "Modern College," made the points that it is distinctly scientific, rather than classical, scientific even in its method of studying classics, that it is elective rather than compulsory, that it is in touch with the world of to-day and its standards, rather than mediæval and monastic; and these resolutions are in full harmony with that trend of the modern college.

President Hall, of Clark University, two weeks ago, before the Schoolmasters' Club, spoke in a remarkable way of the cultivation of brain areas by different kinds of study. That which prevailed a quarter of a century ago *cultivated the memorizing faculties mainly*, and that was of course the classical. Object study, manual training, and the scientific method have added immensely to the area of the brain now under cultivation, though a very considerable area is still left undeveloped.

If we cannot cultivate all the brain area of any one boy, let

us try by these different programmes to do what we can toward cultivating a larger brain area of the composite boy. I advocate the adoption of these resolutions, lastly, because they represent the deliberate, mature thought of educational experts fully competent to represent the two factors of which this body is composed, the college and the preparatory school. The U. S. Commissioner of Education needs no eulogy in Eastern Massachusetts. Six college presidents, including Harvard, Michigan, and Vassar, and the head masters of such large preparatory schools as the Girls' High and Latin, Boston, the Lawrenceville Academy, New Jersey, and the Albany High School, ought to know what they are talking about, and it only remains, in my opinion, for us to accept their report and put the experiment on its trial.

PROFESSOR M. H. MORGAN: I do not rise for the purpose of making objections to the general principles laid down in the report of the Committee of Ten, or to those expressed by Dr. Tetlow. For, speaking broadly, I heartily approve of the main lines of both. But I have come here to-day to object to the approval, by this Association, of a specific one of the four programmes, namely, the Classical, and to propose a modification of it. Being about to do so daring a thing—for its danger has already been insisted upon this morning—and being entirely unknown to almost everybody here, it seems proper that I should explain who I am. I am the junior instructor in Greek in Harvard College, and I speak here to-day in the absence of my seniors, Professors Goodwin and White, who are attending the joint meeting of the Philological, Oriental, Modern Language, and other learned societies in Philadelphia. I may perhaps best introduce the objection which I am to make, by reading this telegram, which I received last night from Professor Goodwin:

"American Philological Association voted unanimously and enthusiastically, that in any programme for the classical course in schools preparing pupils for American colleges not less than three years instruction in Greek should be required. Almost all New England colleges represented, besides many others."

I may remark, for the benefit of those who do not know, that this Association is not composed merely of classical scholars, but includes scholars of English and the modern languages.

throughout the country—in fact that it is Philological in the widest sense.

Now the objections to the first of the four programmes which I, representing the Greek Department of Harvard, have come to make, are the following :

(1.) That while it is called a *Classical Programme*, it provides for only two years of Greek. Hence it proposes to give the pupil only the power to read at sight the simplest Attic prose. Hence, as it does not include Homer, it would not admit to Harvard with Advanced Greek, nor to Yale, or most other colleges, at all. Here I wish to read this letter, which I have received from Professor Seymour, the senior professor of Greek at Yale College :

PHILADELPHIA, Dec. 27.

Dear Professor Morgan:

I regret sincerely that the engagement of several of my colleagues and myself at the meeting of philologists here, and of Professor Wright in New York, and the absence of Professor Peck, (who is in Italy,) and of Professor Goodell, (in Greece,) make it impossible for any of us to be present at the meeting in Boston on Saturday, that we might protest against the adoption of the proposed resolutions. These aim to promote a closer articulation between the schools and the colleges, but they would not effect this in the case of Yale. So far as my observation goes, the schools cannot prepare in two years for our examination in Greek. I believe that we philologs at Yale shall not stand alone in refusing to accept the program presented by the Committee of Ten for the preparation for the classical course. You probably have learned from Professor Goodwin of the feeling on the subject manifested by the philologs in session here.

We at Yale are ready to do much in order to secure a "closer articulation," but we are not ready to cut down by a year the requirements in Greek. I shall be glad if you will kindly see that the position of Yale on this question is not misunderstood in Boston.

Very truly yours,

T. D. SEYMOUR.

But if it is said that a boy might *possibly* be prepared for the Advanced Greek in two years, I do not deny the *possibility*, but will merely say that the report presented to the Committee of Ten by the Greek Conference, expressly recommends that schools which teach Greek only two years, should not touch Homer at all. The Conference recommended that Greek should be taught for three years, in periods of five, four and four times a week for each year respectively.

(2.) If boys come to college with only two years of Greek, the study of Greek in the Freshman year must be exclusively Homer. In the Sophomore year, the present Freshman authors would be the work. Hence there would ensue a loss all along the line, until at the top the classical student would graduate

a year behind the classical student of to-day,—a result which must be considered a serious blow at classical education.

(3.) The student who knows nothing of Homer is, to a great extent, handicapped in proceeding towards advanced study in English, and the other modern languages. Classical philology is now playing a higher part in these than ever before, and that part is destined to broaden still more in the future.

(4.) It is asserted that this programme is designed only for our present high schools, and for such schools as do not now ordinarily fit for colleges, and that it is better that such schools should be put into a position to send some boys to college, even with only a little Greek, than to be unable to send any at all. In answer to this, the Greek Department fears that it would be a very dangerous precedent if it should seem to approve a programme called classical, which provides for only two years of Greek. It fears that if it seems to approve such a programme for high schools with a four years' course, other schools will give up teaching Greek for three years, and fall into line with a programme that seems to bear the approval of professed scholars in Greek.

(5.) We understand that it is a principle of the Committee of Ten that boys should not decide between a college and a scientific school course until they have been two years in the high school; and that up to that time they should all study the same things. Then, as the report says, "the boy, having had opportunity to discover his tastes by excursions into all the principal fields of knowledge," may make his choice on good grounds. But it will be observed that in the first two years of the classical and the Latin-Scientific programmes, the boy is not given a sight even of the Greek alphabet, while he *is* introduced, before he makes his decision, to every other important subject. He has to make his choice, therefore, without much of any information about Greek, except that people who do not know it tell him that it is a dreadfully hard language.

For all these reasons the Greek department of Harvard can not accept this programme as a good classical programme in any sense, and it protests with all its might against the idea that a school programme can be called classical which provides for only two years of Greek. The department holds strongly the view that the real trouble in all the programmes lies lower than the high school, and it firmly believes that a year of Latin or a modern language should be in the grammar school. It regrets that the Committee of Ten did not insist upon this

point. The department does not intend to lose sight of it, but will consistently press it in the future.

Dissatisfied, therefore, with this so-called classical programme, the department has requested me to suggest one in its place, and to ask this Association to consider the question of its adoption. The modifications we propose in the programme as printed in the Report are very slight, and they are all in line with the principles set forth by the Committee of Ten. No change is proposed in the first year. In the second year, we propose that Latin be reduced from five periods to four. This is in accordance with what seems to be the principle of the committee, namely, that five periods should be devoted to the first year of a language, and four or less to other years. Next we propose to substitute Greek for German or French, and to assign to it five periods. In the third year we would reduce Greek to four periods, and give five to French or German. In the fourth year we would reduce Greek to four periods, and give four to French or German. These are the only changes proposed, and it will be observed that they do not interfere with the sum of twenty periods a week for a year. They would not interfere with parallelism in the second year of the Latin-Scientific course, if in that year of that course Latin were taught for four and German or French for five periods a week.

If these changes were adopted we should be perfectly satisfied, I think, with all the programmes. But I hope that nobody will misunderstand the position of the department in this matter. It is not, so far as I know it, a pig-headed or obstinate position. That is, if the department should be defeated in its wish to change this programme, I for one should not by any means be inclined to say that we could not work under the Committee's first proposal, and I do not think that any of my colleagues would take up such a position. As a department, we should of course oppose its adoption at every stage, but, once convinced of the inevitable, I am sure that it would be met with a good grace.

I move, therefore, that after the second resolution the following be inserted:

Resolved, That this Association, however, would prefer in the Classical Programme, an arrangement by which Greek should be taught for three years in periods of 5, 4, 4 respectively, and Modern Languages for two years in periods of 5, 4 respectively.

DR. TETLOW: Dr. Morgan has rendered a distinct service by showing that one of the programmes, at least, involves less work than is now required for admission to Harvard College. His proposition to amend the resolutions, however, reopens the old question respecting the time for beginning Greek, a question that was earnestly argued in the Committee of Ten, and argued to a conclusion. That conclusion is shown by the place given to Greek in the Classical Programme and by the foot-note. It can serve no useful purpose to amend the resolution in the way that it is now proposed.

The Secretary read the following letter from Professor W. W. Goodwin:

DEAR SIR:

I am very sorry that I cannot attend the meeting of teachers on Saturday. I should like to add my protest to those which will there be made by all who have the interests of classical learning at heart, against the adoption of any so-called "Classical Programme" which gives Greek only two years in a four years' course of study in preparation for college. It is hard to see what meaning is attached to the word "classical" in a plan by which Greek is to be studied only two years, while French or German is to have three years, and Mathematics, (excluding arithmetic,) four. It is beyond question that this scheme contemplates no possibility of preparing pupils at all in Greek for Yale College, and other colleges with the Yale standard, or of preparing them in anything beyond the elementary Greek for Harvard College. This means simply that all who go to college from these schools, if they study Greek at all, must be instructed in college in the school work which belongs to the so-called "Advanced Greek" at Harvard, and is a part of the regular requisition in Greek at Yale. It seems incredible that any one can seriously propose to take such a backward step in education, as to increase the school work to be done by the colleges, when it is notorious that the crying evil in all American colleges at present is the necessity of wasting their resources in teaching elementary matters which belong in school and are taught much better in school than in college.

The judgment of the Committee of Ten, however high this may be estimated in other departments, where they were guided by the opinions of experts, cannot have the same value in regard

to Greek; for in this department the Committee have deliberately set aside the most decided opinions of their experts and have proposed a scheme which is in direct opposition to the recommendation of their Greek Conference. The Conference (page 77) "recommends that the study of Greek be begun at least three years before the close of the course preparatory to college," allowing an exception only for schools in which Latin is studied but three years. All the other recommendations of the Greek Conference are based on this fundamental principle. The deliberate judgments of the Conferences are what give authority to the proposals of the Committee of Ten; and I trust that no body of teachers will be willing to disregard the unanimous judgment of the classical scholars who compose the Greek Conference, when this is in harmony with that of other classical scholars.

If the Teachers' Convention is in doubt about their proper course, it seems to me that they can at least suspend their opinion until they have consulted the classical departments of the chief New England colleges and have learned their opinions upon the effect which such action as is now proposed would have upon the study of Greek in New England.

Yours very truly,

W. W. Goodwin.

Professor F. D. Allen: The Greek instructors of Harvard College had not overlooked the foot-note in the report of the Committee of Ten, by which the possibility of a three year course in Greek in some schools is recognized. But that report recommends a two years' course as the normal amount, and as a *sufficient* amount; the clause in the foot-note is permissive only. My colleagues earnestly desired that this Association's vote should not be cast in favor of a two years' course as against one of three years. Had the Committee seen fit to reverse this arrangement—had they provided in their tabulated scheme for three years of Greek, and stated in the foot-note that schools not adequately equipped for this, might substitute two years, then one objection would be removed.

The Greek Department desires no advantage over others; it only asks not to be placed at a fatal disadvantage. The boy who has followed the proposed course in Modern Languages, will be prepared for the advanced admission examination at Harvard in French and German. The course in science prepares for the advanced examination in science. But the so-

called classical course will not prepare for the advanced examination in Latin and Greek. It will prepare only for Latin. Is it too much to ask that schools shall be so organized that at best *some* pupils may enter college with the advanced requirement in Greek?

Professor Allen also read portions of a letter received from Professor John Williams White, giving his views as follows:

"The Committee have neglected the recommendations of the Greek Conference, a body of experts whom they invited to advise them!

In the two years allowed Greek, no more than the minimum can be accomplished, to speak in terms of the Harvard requisitions for admission. All the other maxima are provided for except Greek. Greek, therefore, has been docked a year, while the standard of the other subjects has been maintained. And this in a so-called classical programme!

If Greek had been let stand with three years, and German or French had been given two years, as heretofore, the matter would have righted itself in time, for in time the elements of Latin and French will go into the grammar schools. But I fear that, if Greek once gets settled on a two years' basis, we shall never recover our maximum.

A four years' programme that gave three years to Greek and two to German or French would create no hardship, for it is certain that the German or French minimum and maximum can be done as readily in two years as the Greek in three. But even if it created hardship, Greek, in a *classical* programme, should be given the time that it requires. Such a programme is properly one where both classical languages get full recognition; but against all the traditions Greek in *this* classical programme gets only a little more than one-half the time given to Latin, and is subordinated to French and German. Yet this is the only programme in which Greek appears, whereas Latin appears in three, and German and French, in all four. The matter should not be minced. The adoption of these four programmes as they stand means that the standard of Greek studies is to be lowered a year in the school and in the college. That is a grave step for any teacher or any college to take.

The two reasons given by the committee are not to me convincing. The principle is laid down that a boy must know

something about all the subjects before he can wisely decide what he will elect ; but by this classical programme he is required to decide whether or not he will study Greek before he has read a line. By the committee's own principle, Greek should have been put into the second year with physics. German or French he is bound to take in any case.

To deny Greek a place in the second year because many boys and girls do not stay in school more than two years, is to assume that a year's earnest study in Greek is not as valuable to such a boy or girl as a year's study of German or French,—which admits of argument.

I should be sorry to be misunderstood. I believe in election among studies, and in convertible programmes, but I do not believe that it will be well to establish any set of programmes in this country which will make it *impossible* for a boy to get beyond our present Greek minimum in fitting for college.

Faithfully yours,

John Williams White"

DR. TETLOW : Allusion has been made in these letters to the fact that the advice of the experts in Greek was disregarded in arranging the programmes of Table IV. This could not be avoided. It was true in respect to other subjects, notably history. If the recommendations of the Conferences had all been carried out, the result would have been, as shown in Table II., that the programme of every year except the first would contain much more instruction than any one pupil can take with profit,—from 35 to $37\frac{1}{2}$ periods per week. Modification of these recommendations was therefore imperative. The beginning of Greek in the third year rather than the second was made necessary by the adoption of the principle that bifurcation should be postponed as late as possible. This principle is important, and should not be ignored. There seem to be none but historical reasons why elementary Greek should not be taught in college, even as elementary French or German are taught.

PROFESSOR CHARLES E. FAY : I see no possibility of securing the passage of the original resolutions in the face of a protest of such authority and seemingly so justifiable on grounds of "fair play." Doubtless others like myself had come prepared to vote for the resolutions as drafted, and had not been moved by any of the considerations urged against them up to the mo-

ment of Professor Morgan's presentation of the protest against the classical course. This protest, so powerfully reinforced, can not but carry great weight, and doubtless the conference is now irrevocably divided in opinion. Action seems still possible, however, if the conference is ready to adopt Professor Morgan's amendment so extended as to embody Professor Allen's suggestion that to the word "Greek" in the second year a foot-note be appended stating in effect that where schools were better prepared to teach the modern languages than Greek, French or German may be substituted for that language in the second year.

PROFESSOR POLAND: Dr. Tetlow remarked that the practice of excluding elementary Greek from college courses had *only* historical grounds on which to rest. This ought not to reflect contempt upon the practice. The simple fact that generations of college teachers have found by experience that this course is advisable, is presumably a strong argument in its favor.

PRESIDENT ELIOT: This association finds itself in a difficult position. Being invited to recommend the programmes of the Committee of Ten as affording adequate preparation for corresponding courses in colleges and scientific schools, it encounters a serious opposition to one of the programmes, namely, the Classical; and this opposition proceeds from college teachers of Greek. I cannot but think that such action on the part of the classical departments of the colleges is rash. It is perfectly well known that Greek is maintained with difficulty in the public secondary schools of the United States. It is well known that the proportion of persons taking the degree of A. B. in the universities and colleges of the country is declining, and that the proportion of those who take degrees which do not require Greek is all the time rising; and that these degrees without Greek command greater and greater respect. To ask that Greek be given three years in a public high school means that three-fourths of the time of the best teacher in the school is to be devoted to teaching Greek to a comparatively small number of pupils. It is a rash demand, and the more imperative and uncompromising, the rasher it is. Indeed, it seems to me to illustrate the saying, "Quem Deus vult perdere prius dementat."

I listened attentively to the objections suggested by Mr. Goodrich of Salem and Mr. Goodwin of Newton to the second of the resolutions before us, and it seemed to me that it would

be possible to modify that resolution in such a way as to affirm the essential principle, and yet to avoid the difficulties of which they spoke. I should like to suggest a change in that resolution so that it should not carry a recommendation for the immediate adoption of the programmes of the Committee of Ten in all their details and to their full extent. I would suggest that the second resolution be made to read:

"Resolved, that as an effective means of securing such closer articulation, the satisfactory pursuit of any one of the studies embodied in the programmes submitted on pages 46 and 47 of the Report of the Committee of Ten, to the extent and in the manner recommended by the Committee, should be allowed to count for admission to colleges and scientific schools."

I am sure that the Faculty of Harvard University could not object to that resolution so far as Greek is concerned; for they admit candidates now with only so much knowledge of Greek as can be attained in two years at school, and even without any Greek. Let us remember that two other Massachusetts colleges admit candidates without any Greek, namely, Williams and Tufts. It seems to me this wording of the resolution will accomplish the main objects which the Committee of Ten and this Association are supposed to have in view. I must confess that I had rather a different feeling about the programmes recommended by the Committee of Ten from that which some of my colleagues on the Committee expressed. I think I see that these programmes are to be temporary. I see that changes are already being made on a great scale in the grammar schools, which will make it possible to improve very much the programmes of the secondary school. I am much more concerned that the principles stated in the Report of the Committee of Ten should be accepted, than that the programmes should be adopted. One main principle is that whatever study is faithfully and adequately pursued in the secondary schools—public, private, or endowed—should count for admission to colleges and scientific schools.

I ask your attention also to the fact that the resolution modified in accordance with my suggestion, while affirming the main principle, will leave both colleges and schools free to make a great variety of dispositions suitable to their own special circumstances and conditions. It seems to me important that the individuality of schools as well as of colleges be maintained. The modified wording of the resolution also permits gradual improvement of the secondary schools; and that capacity for

gradual development is, I believe, an important element of strength in the new movement.

I would not have you infer from anything I have said that I am opposed to teaching Greek in the best possible manner—far from it. I am opposed to insisting on maintaining so much Greek in public secondary schools with four-year programmes, that the practical result will be the exclusion of the language from the immense majority of the secondary schools of the United States.

THE CHAIR: Does President Eliot propose this change merely as a suggestion or as an amendment to the resolutions?

PRESIDENT ELIOT: In that matter I should wish to be subject to the wish of my friend, Dr. Tetlow.

PROFESSOR POLAND: I find myself favoring the suggestion of President Eliot, not only as a compromise, but as in itself the best course for the Association to pursue. I should like to move its adoption.

MR. GOODWIN: I accept the suggestion of President Eliot. It removes all my objections to the resolutions.

DR. TETLOW: I am not prepared to say, without further reflection, that I am satisfied with the suggestion which is offered as a substitute for the resolutions, but it may be as far as we are now prepared to go. I move, therefore, that in place of the second resolution, as read, the following be substituted:

Resolved, That as an effective means of securing such closer articulation, the satisfactory pursuit of any one of the studies embodied in the programmes submitted on pages 46 and 47 of the Report of the Committee of Ten, to the extent and in the manner recommended by the Committee, should be allowed to count for admission to colleges and scientific schools.

PROFESSOR MORGAN: As the resolution as amended by President Eliot contains no approval whatever of the proposed Classical Programme as such, and does not commit the Association or the Greek department of Harvard to such approval, I have no objection to it. I therefore withdraw my own amendment.

PROFESSOR EDWIN A. GROSVENOR: It has seemed to me, in view of the limited time left for discussion and the importance of the step contemplated, that it is inadvisable to take action at this meeting. I favor a further discussion of the resolutions. I therefore move that further consideration of them be postponed till the annual meeting in October.

This motion was put, and lost. The Association then, with but one dissenting vote, substituted the new form of the second resolution for the older one, and proceeded, without a dissenting vote, to adopt the resolutions as amended. As adopted they read thus:

Resolved, That the interests of education would be promoted by a closer articulation than now exists between the secondary schools and the higher institutions of New England.

Resolved, That, as an effective means of securing such closer articulation, the satisfactory completion of any one of the studies embodied in the programmes submitted on pages 46 and 47 of the Report of the Committee of Ten, to the extent and in the manner recommended by the Committee, should be allowed to count for admission to colleges and scientific schools.

Resolved, That the authorities of the colleges and scientific schools represented in this Association be, and they hereby are, requested to take such action as will give effect to the foregoing implied recommendation.

Resolved, That the secretary be requested to send a copy of these resolutions to the president and faculty of every college and scientific school represented in this Association, and that the Committee of Conference be requested to bring the same to the attention of the Commission of Colleges in New England, and to request that body to take appropriate action thereon.

Immediately after this action the Association adjourned.

Ray Greene Huling, Secretary

Cambridge, Mass.

NOTES

In order to publish in full in this number the very interesting and timely report of the special meeting of the New England Association of Colleges and Prepatory Schools, we are obliged to omit the Book Department and reduce other departments to their lowest terms. Next month the usual form will be resumed and the omitted departments will be unusually strong.

COMMUNICATION

Editors of the School Review :

Dear Sirs :

No doubt most of your readers are acquainted with the fact that a Conference of representatives from New England and the Middle States, assembled for the purpose of considering the subject of college entrance requirements in English, was held at Philadelphia last May. The recommendations of this Conference have been adopted by the Commission of Colleges in New England, by the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools, by the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools in the Middle States and Maryland, and substantially by the Association of the North Central States, which was recently formed.

Among the features of the report adopted by the Conference was a recommendation with respect to advanced examinations in English, of which the following is a copy :—

"The Conference recommends that the following scheme be offered as a suggestion of recommendation to colleges desiring to set an advanced examination in English.

ADVANCED EXAMINATIONS

NOTE.—The candidate may choose either I. or II.

I. A detailed study of a single period of English literature, and of not fewer than three authors belonging to it ; as, for example, of the age of Queen Anne, with special reference to Pope, Swift, and Addison.

II. (*a*) Old English (Anglo-Saxon) ; chiefly simple prose and grammar, or

(*b*) Chaucer : Prologue, Knightes Tale, and Nonne Prestes Tale, including vocabulary, inflection, and prosody.

As a member of the Committee appointed by the New England Commission, the writer was requested to submit his views on the subject of an advanced examination to the Conference, when it should meet. It has been thought that, in the present state of public opinion on the question of English, these views might be of interest to schoolmen generally, and they are therefore submitted, precisely as they were, to the members of the Conference, in the form of

NOTES ON AN ADVANCED EXAMINATION IN ENGLISH.

At the request of the Chairman of the Middle States Committee, the undersigned has considered the topic of an advanced examination in English, with a view of presenting his suggestions at the conference between this Committee and that from the New England Association. In order that the members of the Committees may have an opportunity to reflect upon these suggestions before the time of the Conference, they are now respectfully submitted in advance.

In the opinion of the undersigned, the subject best adapted to such an advanced examination is Elementary Old English, (Anglo Saxon), the reasons being as follows:

1. Such an examination is at once recognizable as advanced, and is not likely to be regarded as a mere continuation of the entrance examination. Were it otherwise, the candidate might be tempted to slight the preparation for the advanced examination on the theory that but little extra labor would be necessary to fulfil the requirement.

2. The work in this subject must of necessity be more critical and methodical than the average teacher is likely to make the preparation for the entrance examination. This is greatly to be desired, since it will at once tend to increase the intellectual power of the student and his respect for English.

3. A grounding in Old English will open up five hundred years of English linguistic and literary history that would otherwise be virtually a blank.

4. The elements of Old English constitute a key to the etymological, syntactic, and metrical history of our language.

5. No other discipline in English would, in the same time, throw so much light on the whole course of English history, not only literary and linguistic, but social, political, and racial.

6. No other advanced subject is likely to be so well taught by the average teacher, for none can be made so definite.

7. For the reason last adduced, it would be more practicable in this way than in any other to secure a reasonable uniformity in teaching and examination.

8. No other single subject that could be proposed is likely to win so many suffrages, since there is no other subject that so large a proportion of experts would pronounce fundamental.

9. No other study would be likely to react so beneficially upon the teacher, and upon the whole quality of the English instruction he imparts.

10. Everything considered, no other subject that is likely to be proposed would be easier to both teacher and pupil, in the sense that no other study is likely to show so considerable a result for the time and labor bestowed upon it.

It will be understood that the object of the foregoing is merely to facilitate debate, by providing a series of propositions which can be readily attacked or defended.

ALBERT S. COOK"

Yale University, May 14, 1894

CURRENT EDUCATIONAL LITERATURE

The "Compound Dozierende Method" of Teach'ng of Mathematics, from privately printed pamphlet of GEORGE E. FISHER and I. J. SCHWATT, of the University of Pennsylvania.

The "compound dozierende method" advocates devoting the major part of the hour to the explanation of difficult points in text and problems. This course is of advantage not only to the dull but to the bright, for it broadens the knowledge and conceptions of all. We have found by our experience both as teachers and as pupils of wise and distinguished instructors, that even a bright student, who may perhaps appreciate no difficulty in a particular theorem or problem, can have his knowledge made more sure and of wider application by listening to explanations, questions and answers, perhaps, given or directed by a teacher who "knows more than the text-book" (not necessarily more than its author). Better an excellent teacher with a poor text-book or none at all, than a superior book with an inferior teacher. By this method the student's strength in, and aptitude for, mathematical work, his powers of thinking for himself, are all developed.

We would emphasize the fact that this method is not one of pure lecturing, as in a German university, although much of the hour is occupied by the teacher's explanations. It seeks rather to point out wherein are the difficulties, to lead the students by judicious questions to correct explanations of them. It would analyze a problem or theorem, pointing out and *drawing out from the student*, what are the given data, how they can be used, what wider applications they have, how they bear upon somewhat similar questions, etc. In a word it seeks not merely to assist the student but to teach him to help himself. This method cautions against wrong inferences from, and use of, given data, directs in the right way, and seeks to infuse somewhat of the spirit of the subject, not merely the dry bones of the facts, into the mental life of the students. This essential teaching certainly cannot be given in one hour set aside by the instructor for consultation with his student, as we have heard suggested by advocates of the recitation method.

Evidently this requires active physical as well as mental work on the instructor's part, and that he shall be much of the time at the blackboard. *It is essential that the attention of the entire class be concentrated upon the single piece of work that is being done*, whether by the instructor or a student. We dwell upon this vital point. Even in the part of the hour which is devoted to work by the students, but one shall be at the board at a time, explaining the work assigned to him (while it is progressing, if possible). Each member of the class is expected to follow the work, and promptly to answer any questions relating to it. In this way is secured, as in no other, orderly attention, and more than all else, *each minute of the hour is rendered of maximum benefit to the greatest number*.

It would be far easier for the teacher to assign work to as many men as his

blackboard space would accommodate, and from his chair to keep a record of their performance or non-performance of the exercises set. It is a straining, tiring system to give and direct many explanations, and one which well might not be employed, if bodily and mental ease were considered of first importance. The method of recitations can be made so free from strain for the teacher, that, if he be a fanatic in his principles, he can conduct his "recitation" not only without leaving his seat, but also without uttering a word. We recall, in this connection, the method of the old German professor, who, on entering his room, called a certain number of students to the board by a particular sign, and at the end of the hour by another sign indicated whether the students should go on in advance or repeat the lesson, he, from his easy chair, only marking the failures and successes. Very likely, he, also, had an hour for private consultation with his students, at which time, if not in mathematics, at least in his system of signals, he gave instruction. If it were not for the giving of marks, which requires some slight mental activity, in these days of inventions a clever machine could replace the distinguished professor.

It does not especially benefit a student to re-work at the board a problem which he has already solved at home, or to convince his teacher at the end of the hour that he is insufficiently prepared through a failure to solve his special piece of work. The student does need practice in working for himself, and he often needs instruction while he is at work. We believe therefore, in giving some part of the hour to individual work by the students, accompanied by the necessary suggestions and directions by the teacher, keeping in mind always the needs of the entire class. We purposely avoid the word "recitation"—parrots recite, not students. Any problem or part of the text that presents no difficulty is passed by (not omitted from the lesson) in preference to those portions involving special difficulties or important principles. Such a method is harder, too, for the students, in some respects, and yet, that the efforts of their instructors are appreciated and approved by them, is shown by a recent occurrence. An instructor having changed from the compound dozierende method to that of recitations for some reason the students of one department petitioned their head to request a return to the original method of instruction.

We do not fail to realize that this system must be accompanied by some method of keeping the students from neglecting their work, and of giving credit for progress. He is a very poor teacher who does not quickly learn from the faces before him, and especially from answers to frequent questions, who is and who is not *thinking*, who does and who does not understand. Nevertheless, we supplement the daily work, by written reviews. This gives to the student a fairer chance, since he has an opportunity to work a variety of questions, and it affords the teacher the best means of determining wherein his students are failing. It is emphasized that these reviews are considered in no way different from work at the board and not as an examination. After each review, those points which seem not fully to have been understood, are taken up and explained again.

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

PEDAGOGICS

BARNETT: The Training of Girls for Work. An Expression of Opinion. By Edith A. Barnett. Size 4⅛x7 in.; pp. viii. 215. Price 80 cents. Macmillan & Co.

DEGARMO: The Great Educators. Edited by Nicholas Murray Butler. Herbart and the Herbartians. By Charles DeGarmo, Ph. D., President of Swarthmore College, Pennsylvania. Size 5x7⅜ in.; pp. ix. 268. Charles Scribner's Sons

HILL: Harvard College, by an Oxonian. By George Birkbeck Hill, D. C. L. Honorary Fellow of Pembroke College, Oxford. Size 5¼x7¼ in.; pp. 337. Price $2. Macmillan & Co.

MARTIN: International Education Series. The Evolution of the Massachusetts Public School System. A Historical Sketch. By George H. Martin, A. M., Supervisor of Public Schools, Boston, Mass. Size 5x7¾ in.; pp. xx. 284. D. Appleton & Co.

PAULSEN: The German Universities. Their Character and Historical Development. By Friedrich Paulsen, Professor of Philosophy and Pedagogy in the University of Berlin. Authorized Translation by Edward Delevan Perry, Professor in Columbia College, New York, with an Introduction by Nicholas Murray Butler. Size 5¼x7¾ in.; pp. xxxi. 246. Price $2. Macmillan & Co.

REIN: Encyklopädisches Handbuch der Pädagogik herausgegeben von W. Rein. Erster Band. Lieferung 1-6. Size 7⅛x10⅛ in.; pp. i. 480. Langensalza. Hermann Beyer & Söhne. 1894.

School Libraries: Why—How—Where To Get One for Schools, Teachers, Homes. Size 4¾x7¼ in.; pp. 32. Ginn & Co.

Annual Report of the Board of Education of the City of Auburn, N. Y. For the School Year Ending July 31, 1894. Size 6x9⅛ in.; pp. 112. Wm. J. Moses, Printer, Auburn, N. Y.

Manual One. Los Angeles City Schools. Report of Condition with Recommendations. January 7, 1895. Size 5¼x8⅜ in.; pp. 58. Kingsley-Barnes & Neuner Co.

Twelfth Biennial Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Washington. Published by Authority. 1894. Size 6x8¾ in.; pp. 261. Olympia Wash. O. C. White, State Printer.

ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE

BRIDGES: Milton's Prosody. An Examination of the Rules of the Blank Verse in Milton's Later Poems, with an Account of the Versification of Samson Agonistes and General Notes by Robert Bridges. Size 6¼x8¼ in.; pp. 80. Price 40 cents. Macmillan & Co.

CORSON: The Aims of Literary Study. By Hiram Corson, LL. D., Professor of English Literature in the Cornell University. Size 4x5¼ in.; pp. 153. Price 75 cents. Macmillan & Co.

FRINK: See Phelps.

GOLDSMITH: The Riverside Literature Series. The Deserted Village, The Traveller, and other Poems. By Oliver Goldsmith. With a Biographical sketch, Introduction and Notes. Size 4⅛x6¼ in.; pp. 96. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

HAWTHORNE: The Riverside Literature Series. The Old Manse and a Few Mosses. By Nathaniel Hawthorne. With an Introduction and Notes. Size 4⅛x6¼ in.; pp. 92. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

JACKSON: Maynard's English Classic Series. No. 148-149. The Book of Job. Revised Version with the American Revisers' preferences incorporated. Edited by Samuel Macaulay Jackson, D. D., LL. D., Editor of the Concise Dictionary of Religious Knowledge. Size 4¼x6½ in.; pp. 86. Maynard, Merrill & Co.

ORNE: A Manual of Analysis and Parsing. Consisting of Simple, Compound and Complex Sentences. Selected and Classified by Martha R. Orne. Designed to be used as a Supplement to any Grammar. Size 5x7¼ in.; pp. iv. 115. Price 30 cents. Lee & Shepard.

PAINTER: Introduction to English Literature. Including a Number of Classic Works. With Notes. By F. V. N. Painter, A. M., Professor of Modern Languages and Literature in Roanoke College. Size 5½x7¼ in.; pp. viii. 627. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn.

PHELPS: Rhetoric. Its Theory and Practice. 'English Style in Public Discourse.' By Austin Phelps, D. D., late Bartlett Professor of Sacred Rhetoric in Andover Theological Seminary and Henry Allyn Frink, Ph. D., Professor of Logic, Rhetoric, and Public Speaking in Amherst College. Size 5x7¼ in.; pp. xix. 317. Charles Scribner's Sons.

SKEAT: The Complete Works of Geoffrey Chaucer. Edited from Numerous Manuscripts by the Rev. Walter W. Skeat, Litt D. Ph. D., Erlington and Bosworth. Professor of Anglo-Saxon and Fellow of Christ's College. Cambridge. Vol. vi. Introduction, Glossary, and Indexes. Size 6x9 in ; pp. ciii. 445. Price $4. Macmillan & Co.

STRUNK: Macaulay's and Carlyle's Essays on Samuel Johnson. Edited with Introduction and Notes. By William Strunk, Jr., Instructor in English, Cornell University. Size 4⅛x6½ in.; pp. xl. 192. Henry Holt & Co.

WHITTIER: The Riverside Literature Series. A Selection from Child Life in Prose. Edited by John Greenleaf Whittier. Size 4½x6¼ in., pp. 100. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Choice Reading. Favorite Chapters from Favorite Books included in Ginn & Company's School Libraries. Contents of this book: Briar Rose; Select Fables; Last Dream of the Old Oak; Shipwrecked on a Desolate Island; Selection from Paul Revere's Ride, etc.; Search for the Golden Fleece; First Canto from Scott's Lady of the Lake; Story of Franklin's Boyhood. Size 4¼x6¼ in.; pp. 156. Ginn & Co.

Sheldon's Advanced Language Lessons. Grammar and Composition. Size 5⅛x7½ in.; pp. 376. Sheldon & Co.

Sheldon's Primary Language Lessons. Size 5¼x7½ in.; pp. 160. Sheldon & Co.

GREEK AND LATIN LANGUAGES AND LITERATURES

BUTCHER: Aristotle's Theory of Poetry and Fine Art, with a Critical Text and a Translation of the Poetics. By S. H. Butcher, Litt. D., LL. D., Professor of Greek in the University of Edinburgh. Size 6x9 in.; pp. xv. 384. Price $3.25. Macmillan & Co.

DODGE: Topics for the Study of Greek Mythology. Based on Bulfinch's "Age of Fable." By Anna Gooding Dodge, (formerly Teacher of English Literature in the Arlington High School.) Size 5¼x7½ in ; pp. 19. Price 20 cents. Lee & Shepard.

ELMER: A Discussion of the Latin Prohibitive. Based upon a Complete Collection of the Instances from the Earliest Times to the End of the Augustan Period. By H C. Elmer, Assistant Professor of Latin in Cornell University. Reprinted from the American Journal of Philology, Vol. XV, 2 and 3. Size 6x9¼ in.; pp. 51. Ithaca, N. Y.

FLAGG: The Students' Series of Latin Classics. The Lives of Cornelius Nepos. Edited with Notes and an Introduction on the Rapid Reading of Latin and the Art of Translation. By Isaac Flagg, University of California. Size 5x7 in.; pp. xviii. 161. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn.

SEYFFERT: A Dictionary of Classical Antiquities. Mythology, Religion, Literature and Art. From the German of Dr. Oskar Seyffert. Revised and Edited, with Additions, by Henry Nettleship, M A., late Fellow of Corpus Christi College and Corpus Professor of Latin Literature in the University of Oxford, and J. E Sandys, Litt. D., Fellow and Tutor of St John's College and Public Orator in the University of Cambridge With more than 450 illustrations. Third Edition. Size 6¼x10 in ; pp. vi 716 Price $3. Macmillan & Co.

FRENCH, GERMAN, AND SPANISH

BERCY: Lectures Faciles pour L'Etude du Français. Avec Notes Grammaticales et Explicatives Par Paul Bercy, B. L., L. D., Directeur of P. Bercy's School of Languages, New York. Size 5x7½ in.; pp. 256. New York: William R. Jenkins.

BERCY: Simples Notions de Français. Données au moyen de nombreuses Illustrations. Chansons et Rondes. Par Paul Bercy, B. L., L. D., Directeur of P. Bercy's School of Languages, New York. Size 6x8¼ in., pp. 105. New York: William R. Jenkins.

DE LARRA: Partir A Tiempo. Comedia en Un Acto, por Don Mariano José de Larra. Edited and Annotated by Alexander W. Herdler, Instructor in Princeton University. Size 5x7½ in.; pp. 51. Price 35 cents. New York: William R. Jenkins.

HALÉVY: Maynard's French Texts. Un Mariage D'Amour. Par Ludovic Halévy. Edited by Arthur H. Salial, A. B., A. M., Instructor in French in the West Division High School, Chicago. Size 4¼x6¼ in.; pp. 80. Maynard, Merrill & Co.

RIEHL: Maynard's German Texts. No. 8. Die Werke der Barmherzigkeit Von W. H. Riehl. Edited by A. Voegelin, M. A., Assistant Master at St. Paul's School, London. Elementary Text with Notes. Size 4½x6⅜ in ; pp. 94 Maynard, Merrill & Co.

SALIAL: See Halévy.

VERNE: Heath's Modern Language Series. Le Tour Du Monde en Quatre-Vingts Jours. By Jules Verne. Abbreviated Edition, with English Notes by A. H. Edgren, Professor of Romance Languages, University of Nebraska. Size 4¾x7¼ in.; pp. 172. Price 35 cents. D. C. Heath & Co.

Mme. Beck's French Verb Form Size 9x11½ in.; pp. 70. Wm. R. Jenkins, Publisher, 851 Sixth Avenue, New York City.

HISTORY AND POLITICAL ECONOMY

ARCHER: The Story of the Nations. The Crusades. The Story of the Latin Kingdom of Jerusalem. By T. A. Archer and Charles L. Kingsford. Size 5⅛x8 in.; pp. xxx. 467. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

BACHELER: Reference Handbook of American History by the Library Method. For Secondary Schools. Period of the Constitution. 1789-1889. By A. W. Bacheler. Size 5x7¼ in.; pp. ix. 135. Price 50 cents. Lee & Shepard.

BEAZLEY: Prince Henry the Navigator. The Hero of Portugal and of Modern Discovery. 1394-1460 A. D With an Account of Geographical Progress Throughout the Middle Ages as the Preparation for His Work. By C. Raymond Beazley, M. A., F R. G. S., Fellow of Merton College, Oxford. Size 5½x7¾ in.; pp. xxvii. 336. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

CHEYNEY: Translations and Reprints from the Original Sources of European History. English Constitutional Documents Edited by Edward P. Cheyney, A. M., Published by the Department of History of the University of Pennsylvania. Size 5⅜x8⅜ in.; pp. 40. Price 25 cents. Philadelphia, Pa., 1894.

KINGSFORD: See Archer.

PATTEN: Publications of the American Academy of Political and Social Science. No. 136. Economics in Elementary Schools. By Simon N. Patten. A Paper Submitted to the American Academy of Political and Social Science Size 4¼x9 in.; pp. 29. Price 20 cents. Philadelphia: American Academy of Political and Social Science.

REEVES: Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science. Herbert B. Adams, Editor. Twelfth Series. XI-XII. The International Beginnings of the Congo Free State. By Jesse Siddall Reeves, Ph. D. Size 6x9⅛ in.; pp. 106. Price 50 cents. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press.

RICARDO: The First Six Chapters of the Principles of Political Economy and Taxation of David Ricardo. 1817. Size 4¾x7 in.; pp. xii. 118. Price 75 cents. Macmillan & Co.

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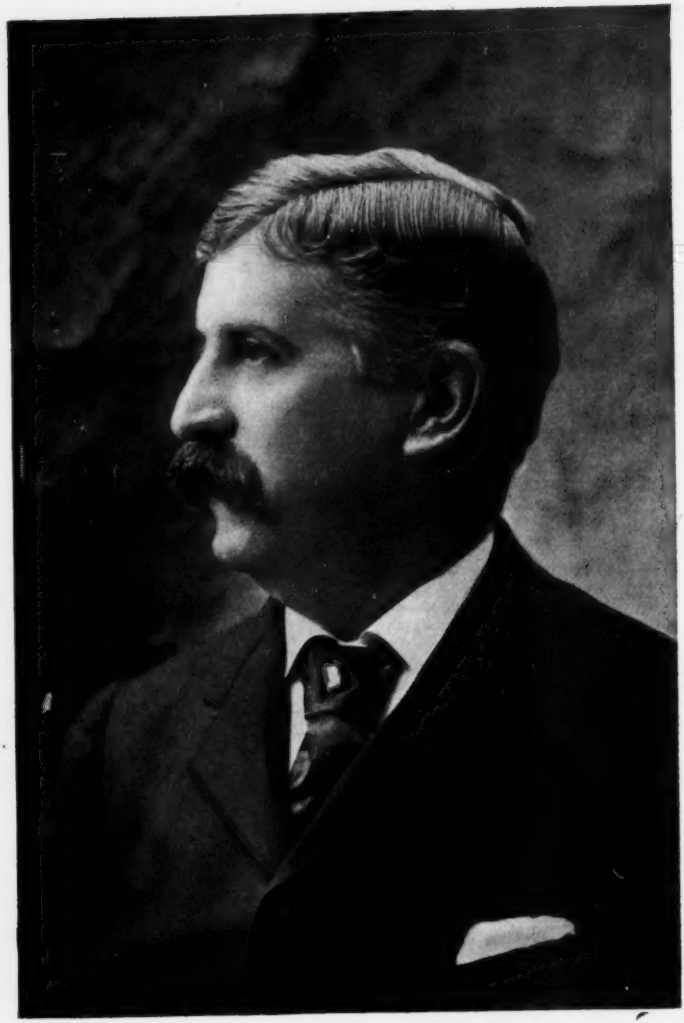

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